UNIVERSITE DE SHERBROOKE

# La motivation et l'entremise en apprentissage de l'anglais

# Motivation and Agency in English Language Learning

Par

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## Summary

This study explored how types of motivation have an effect on student engagement in English as a Second Language courses not driven by summative evaluations. In language learning classrooms where multicultural diversity plays an important role in the dynamics of the learning process, student motivational profiles give educators the insight they need to create effective and inclusive pedagogy. Designing a method to evaluate students' motivation that is not impeded by language issues, cultural anxiety, and logistics is a challenge.

A review of current literature on education and motivation details the wide range of factors and contexts that can influence language learning. A student's background, age, gender, nationality, cultural capital, education history and mother language all have a positive or negative influence on the learning process. There are few existing practices to help educators effectively collect the necessary information from students to design suitable pedagogy that addresses issues related to diversity and multi-culturalism in the classroom. Research reveals that the various factors that influence learning all manifest themselves in a common way. They all have an effect on a student's motivation. If motivation types can be identified, they can lay the groundwork for effective pedagogical design.

The research conducted in this study tested such a process on a total of 56 students in 6 non-credit Adult-Education ESL classes at Dawson College Center for Training and Development in Montreal, Canada. They were given a survey of 7 key questions, in a simple multiple choice questionnaire, that focused on identifying their level of motivation. The aim of this survey was to establish motivational profiles for each student, identifying levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and whether their goals were driven by a desire to invest in the culture of the language, or as a practical means to an end. The survey also identified factors of agency, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, that may have an effect on their success.

The data collected with this method identified the motivational characteristics of each group. The groups, and their motivational data, were then compared to success rates based on successful completion of the course. This analysis was also applied to the population as a whole to determine if certain motivational types or categories were consistent with higher or lower success rates.

The findings of this study showed that pertinent information can be collected through a process that focuses on broad motivational theories. It also shows that the resulting motivational profiles can potentially be used to predict success outcomes, and guide educators in optimizing the group placement of students according to their pedagogical needs. This is relevant to credit and non-credit CEGEP courses alike, as motivation plays an important role in all learning, regardless of its place within an educational system.

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## ABSTRACT

Cette étude explore les types de motivation qui ont un effet sur l'engagement des étudiants en cours d'anglais comme langue seconde lorsqu'ils ne sont pas motivés par des évaluations sommatives. Dans les salles de cours d'apprentissage des langues où la diversité multiculturelle joue un rôle important dans la dynamique du processus d'apprentissage, la création de profils de motivation donne aux éducateurs le moyen de créer une pédagogie efficace et inclusive. Concevoir un processus pour évaluer la motivation des élèves qui ne s'empêche pas par les problèmes de langue, l'anxiété culturelle et la logistique est un défi.

Une revue de la littérature actuelle sur l'éducation et la motivation détaille le large éventail de facteurs et de contextes qui peuvent influencer l'apprentissage des langues. Les antécédents d'un élève, y compris l'âge, le genre, la nationalité, le capital culturel, l'histoire de l'éducation et la langue maternelle ont une influence positive ou négative sur le processus d'apprentissage. Il existe peu de processus efficaces pour aider les éducateurs à déterminer les informations nécessaires auprès des étudiants pour concevoir une pédagogie appropriée qui traite des problèmes liés à la diversité et au multiculturalisme dans la salle de classe. Le large éventail de facteurs se manifeste de manière commune. Ils ont tous un effet sur la motivation d'un élève. Si les types de motivation peuvent être identifiés, ils peuvent jeter les bases d'un design pédagogique efficace.

La recherche menée dans cette étude teste un tel processus sur un total de 56 étudiants dans 6 cours d'anglais comme langue seconde pour adultes sans crédit au Dawson College Centre for Training and Development à Montréal, au Canada. Ils reçoivent un sondage sur 7 questions clés, en simple choix multiple, qui mettent l'accent sur l'identification de leur niveau de motivation en fonction des grandes théories de la motivation. Le but de cette enquête est d'établir des profils de motivation pour chaque élève, en identifiant les niveaux de motivation intrinsèque et extrinsèque, et si leurs objectifs sont ceux d'investissement ou d'instrumental. L'enquête identifie également les facteurs de l'entremise, qu'ils soient intrinsèques ou extrinsèques, ce qui peut avoir un effet sur leur réussite.

Les données recueillies à partir de ce processus peuvent être analysées pour identifier les caractéristiques de motivation de chaque groupe. Chaque groupe et leurs données de motivation sont ensuite comparés aux taux de réussite basés sur l'achèvement du cours. Ce processus d'analyse est également effectué sur l'ensemble de la population pour déterminer si certains types ou catégories de motivation sont compatibles avec des taux de réussite plus élevés ou plus faibles.

Les résultats de cette étude montrent que l'information pertinente peut être recueillie dans le cadre d'un processus axé sur de vastes théories de motivation. Il montre également que les profils de motivation résultants peuvent potentiellement être utilisés pour prédire les résultats de réussite et guider les éducateurs dans l'optimisation du placement de groupe des élèves en fonction de leurs besoins pédagogiques.

## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family, who made all of this worthwhile. I thank my children who continue to give me my hope, and who inspire me every day. I thank my loving wife who has had faith in me through the years and has pushed me to the end. And I thank our parents for convincing me to go back to school, and for helping to make it possible. The years it has taken to complete this work would not have been conceivable without them.

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# CHAPTER ONE

# STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) in continuing education and adult education come across challenges unlike those found in regular classrooms. When trying to optimize language learning for the wide diversity of students in their classrooms, they cannot always rely on a set of students with tangible academic credentials. A standardized process requires some degree of homogeny to yield consistent results. None of the data that educators would typically need to design a course is available in adult continuing education. A significant challenge is presented when instructors need to design pedagogy with little or no pre-conception or knowledge about their students.

Much of what teachers know from the outset, if anything, is information collected from registration forms and the placement process. Then, teachers and students invest time and resources into a learning process that is implemented with little background knowledge on the student. The conditions of the resulting learning environment are dependent on many idiosyncratic, as well as cultural, circumstances that simply go unknown. A burden is then placed on both student and teacher to blindly adapt to a set pedagogical approach and hope for the best.

## 1. 1 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

English as Second Language teachers in Quebec are presented with a unique variety of language instruction contexts. A rich diversity of students is within an environment with language, culture and politics intertwined. The target language (TL) can be taught as an official second language as is the case for French Quebecers, as a language of integration as is the case for new immigrants, or even as a foreign language as is the case for many visiting students. Each of these situations presents its own characteristics and challenges. The sheer diversity of cultures, mother tongues, and socio-economic circumstances, combined with other factors, in any given ESL

classroom, leaves educators looking for a unifying approach to optimizing diverse learning environments.

At the Dawson College Center for Career Development (CTD) in Montreal, English as a Second Language courses are non-credit and have no summative assessments or pre-requisites. Students are customers with self-motivation and free-association. Course content focuses on conversational English, in the target-language only, with little emphasis on reading or writing skills. The courses are expressly designed to develop conversation skills. To facilitate better communication, classes are made up of 6 to 20 students in classrooms with access to audio-visual media. Courses are 40 hours of class time, arranged as in Table 1.

Table 1

Schedule for 40-hour ESL Courses

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Intensives (evening): | 10 hours a week | 4 days a week |
| Regular (evening): | 5 hours a week | 2 days a week |
| Saturday (morning): | 4 hours a week | 1 day a week |

Teachers at Dawson College CTD are typically native-speakers of English. They are experienced ESL teachers, but do not necessarily have specific accreditation. The teachers participating in this study all have a minimum of 10 years' experience. The school insists that teachers use a required textbook for their courses, but they are free to supplement their lesson plan with their own materials. Students provide anonymous feedback at the end of the course by means of a written survey that may be filled out in any language. Teachers may access the results of the survey once the course is finished.

Students in language courses are from a wide variety of nationalities, ages, and cultures. Students' degree of cultural integration into Quebec, and their knowledge of the locally-dominant French language are as varied as their education levels. The particular situation in Quebec provides a unique cultural complication. Immigrant students may find themselves learning English in an environment that is predominantly French-speaking. English is possibly their third or fourth language,

and often being learned concurrently with French. English may also carry a negative stigma, and is often seen as a force of cultural hegemony. This can play a significant role with students who identify culturally as victims of this influence. (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013) This volatile language climate in Montreal presents the student with a unique linguistic context: simultaneously experiencing English in a foreign language environment (where there are few "authentic" situations for usage) and a second language environment (where there are ample opportunities to experience English "in situ") (Oxford, 2003). These elements can provide an additional set of circumstances to an already diverse learning environment.

There are no summative evaluations in the courses. Nor are students tested on their progress. While this does not present a problem for customers casually learning, it creates challenges for educators formally measuring the success of their service. Ultimately, as a business providing a viable service, CTD is concerned with return customers, or at the very least, satisfied customers. Student attendance is a tangible measure of that success. While a student who finishes the course is not guaranteed to return, a student who drops out is unlikely to return or pass on a recommendation.

Data on student attendance is available once the course is finished. Students are issued certificates of achievements based on 80% attendance, so teachers are asked to keep accurate records. The records of course completion are used as an indicator of student success in this study in lieu of standardized test results. Course completion based on this determination will be an indicator of student success in the course.

### 1.1.2 Distinct Variables

When students are organized into groups based on placement test data that focuses on academic level and self-assessment, certain social issues that may affect learning are not being taken into consideration. Basic factors such as educational background and language proficiency levels do not fully describe the student's learning needs. Teachers and instructional designers can never achieve the complete picture they need without fully accounting for social, cultural and educational factors.

With the sheer number of factors involved, instructors need a tangible universal system to effectively evaluate student profiles.

Students in language courses at Dawson College Center for Training and Development (CTD) in Montreal, Quebec come from a wide variety of nationalities, age groups, and cultures. Students' degree of local cultural integration is as varied as their educational background and literacy level. As educators build a relationship with students, collecting the data needed to optimize classroom dynamics is a process riddled with cultural pitfalls. In beginner level courses, in target-language only classrooms, with communication slowly being established, it may take weeks for teachers to attain reliable information from students.

Since CTD adult-education is not part of an academic credit program, and courses are open to paying customers without pre-requisite or entrance exam, little is known of a student's educational background, learning objectives or motivation. Paying customers are asked at registration to place themselves into one of 5 levels ranging from beginner to advanced. By their own means, teachers verify the student`s level during the first lesson and have until the second lesson to formally recommend level changes and transfer. Teachers are provided with a written quiz for students to fill out during the first lesson. It consists of multiple choice questions on vocabulary, verb tense and grammar. Since the course focuses on English conversation, teachers often find it clumsy, preferring to use their own judgement in more informal introductory exercises. Misplaced students often go undetected until it is too late.

Students also deal with a variety of social contexts. In addition to the demands of family life, professional schedules, and particular economic situations, many are dealing with the stress of cultural adjustment. In such an environment, creating a quality learning community is the primary focus. Customer satisfaction (and loyalty) is valued in place of tangible academic success. Students are selected by simply enrolling in the course, making classroom demographics eclectic and diverse. To cope, teachers are provided latitude in creative forms of constructivist pedagogy with little supervision from administration.

### 1.1.3 Addressing the Problem

The current CTD program could benefit from optimizing its learning environment through early placement testing. The current placement process addresses the basic course content needs of students entering the program. Teachers have no knowledge of student background, and no method of correlating classroom experience with student success. As a result, despite regular contact with the student, there is no tangible way of evaluating quality control, nor optimizing satisfaction, nor predicting student retention. By improving the placement process, faculty can gain crucial insight into the needs of their customer students.

In order to overcome the lack of an effective placement testing, language teachers at CTD would benefit from a simple universal system to gauge the needs of students in a manner that is both unobtrusive and insightful. The research detailed in this study showed that physical, cultural and social circumstances all affect a learning environment in important ways; they all contribute positively and negatively to a student's motivation. Rather than investigating all of the countless factors that influence motivation, to gain insight into students' learning needs, instructors need simply to identify what types of motivation the student draws from. Students from vastly different backgrounds often have similar motivational profiles. Once these profiles are identified, instructors can have a clearer picture of their students' drive. When instructors focus on the types of motivation that drive the learning process, in favour of the particular circumstances the motivation comes from, they can start to design more effective pedagogy. This study aimed to test a way of obtaining information from students that is relevant to pedagogical design, without an obtrusive and impossibly lengthy process. The method detailed in this study was tested for its effectiveness in collecting relevant data from ESL students at Dawson CTD in a simple, unobtrusive manner, and for its ability to accurately assess the pedagogical needs of its participants from this data.

# CHAPTER TWO
# LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

## 2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

Continuing education ESL teachers in Montreal, Quebec face the task of negotiating the challenges of a classroom culture as divided as the society they face outside the classroom. To properly evaluate a student's potential, educators need to take into account a student's individual characteristics, as well as how these elements work within a group. This literature review examines the range of factors that influence language acquisition and how educators have examined them. Each study demonstrates its own approach to measuring the effects of these factors, beginning with more easily identifiable factors such as age, language, nationality, educational background, and gender, then ultimately leading to the interpersonal, cultural and motivational factors that affect language acquisition.

There is strong evidence to show that a language learner's needs are rooted in intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Slev (2015), Kelley and Kohnert (2012), Sugishita et al. (2012) Mathews-Aydinli (2008), Pike, Kuh & McCormick (2011) and Pappamihiel (2001) have shown us how a student's age influences the social dynamics of language learning. Pappamihiel (2001), Loori (2005) and Jule (2002) demonstrated how gender plays a key role in a student's approach to learning. And Perriera et al. (2006) Becker (2011), Warringer (2007) and Winer (2007) detailed the role of identity and cultural capital.

### 2.1.1 Age as a Factor

There is a generally accepted notion that the younger the language learner the better their success. On the surface, children seem to have distinct advantages in

language acquisition. In a 2015 study on age-related learning difficulties, Anca Maria Slev confirmed that "there are potential advantages in an early start to second language learning, particularly when the instruction is well designed for early learners." (p. 104) Young brains are more malleable, and there is a stronger need for children to participate socially. Then as students become adolescents, they tend to cultivate a stronger sense of independence. By the time they are adults, many of the advantages of youth are gone, but as Slev pointed out "it would be improper to conclude that age dictates the success or proficiency of language learners". (p. 104) Adult learners have different needs from children, and more obstacles. However, when those needs are met, the obstacles can be overcome.

Some of the problems in adult learners are intrinsic, or "ego" related. According to Slev (2015), adults often "have a deep need to be self-directing" that can "lead to experiences of frustration ". (p. 103) Adult learners' needs can also be extrinsic, such as their workload and family responsibilities. And their focus is often more practical. For example, Slev (2015) explained "Older language learners acquire a foreign language for a specific purpose: to be more effective professionally, to be able to cope with an anticipated foreign situation, to be able to conduct research based on foreign literature or for other instrumental reasons." (p. 103) Since adult learners tend to have a broader overall knowledge, they have clearer goals and a wider range of motivations. They "possess greater cognitive maturity, they use better learning strategies and have well-organized study habits, they have a greater ability to focus, they are more goal orientated, they have the advantage of a longer attention span, the ability to make a greater variety of associations, and better short-term memory." (p. 103) So while there is some truth to the belief in "the earlier, the better", according to Slev (2015) with the right pace and environment, classrooms designed with the adults needs in mind, and pedagogy suited to the goals, can have success rates similar to those of children.

Kelley and Kuhnert (2012) found that age may even have certain advantages in language learning. In their study, Spanish speakers were more successful at identifying correct vocabulary words in English when they had similar cognate

characteristics. This presents a distinct advantage when learning vocabulary in other Latin based languages.

In their quantitative study, a group of native Spanish-speaking children, without known learning disabilities, enrolled in an English speaking school, were given standardized vocabulary tests. The questions had gradually increasing difficulty levels, with varying degrees of cognate usage. Age was a factor in the results. The older the child, the more likely they were to benefit from phonological overlap when asked to match words to pictures. Based on their findings, the study also predicted that other factors would contribute to the variation in success rates including reading level and educational history. These results were based on data collected from typical academic placement tests rooted in a student's educational background, results from prior courses, knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, and overall education level.

Students' particular aptitudes play an important role in driving content and pedagogical approach, especially in an ESL conversation course. Age and experience are a contributing factor to a student's abilities. This was demonstrated in a study by Sugishita et al. (2012) that measured the importance of interpersonal communication skills in language learning by analyzing the results of a variety of standardized tests. Japanese school-age students were given a range of tests to measure vocabulary, comprehension, academic achievement and overall aptitude, including the TQAID (Test of Question Answer Interaction Development), a tool used to quantify social interaction skills. Results showed that certain aptitudes played a role in developing both social skills and academic achievement. For example, interpersonal communication skills were found to be connected to vocabulary and syntax abilities, while academic achievement was more closely related to comprehension.

Age difference within a classroom can also be shown to present a serious challenge to group dynamics. Mathews-Aydinli (2008), in a survey of trends in adult ESL training, provided solid groundwork on issues unique to contemporary continuing education programs. He identified many fundamental qualities that exist in the particular context of language learning that echo the situation at CTD in

Montreal. In a learning environment where students range from 16 – 90 years of age with varied educational backgrounds, he found that teachers use different teaching styles with different age groups. “teachers of adult ELLs (English Language Learners) tended to use more drilling/repetition/ rehearsal exercises, paid greater attention to differences in students’ proficiency levels and learning styles, and generally were more focused on outcomes and assessment than the teachers of children.” (p. 202) In regards to tangible results, children and adults have different levels of active engagement in their own learning process.

Pike, Kuh & McCormick (2011) found age to be a factor in student engagement even among adult learners. Their study involved finding a correlation between the age of the student, their involvement in their learning community, and their overall academic standing. In a quantitative analysis of college-aged students’ marks, Pike et al. looked at students’ academic success in relation to their level of social academic involvement in the form of study groups, tutorials and out-of-class activities with classmates of the same program.

First-year college students displayed noticeably different levels of engagement in their learning communities as compared to students of other years. According to their results, Pike, Kuh and McCormick (2011), concluded, “Participating in a learning community was positively related to first-year students’ perceptions of a supportive campus environment, as were being female, a minority-group member, and living in a residence hall.” (p. 310) As senior students’ lives revolve less and less around campus life, their level of engagement and primary identity as a student appear to diminish. The data showed even lower levels for continuing education courses in that “being a transfer student was negatively related to perceptions of a supportive campus environment”. (p. 310) These results demonstrate that students engage their learning experience in a more meaningful way when they have a sense of community.

Engagement comes from a feeling of belonging in one’s environment that can change through a student’s stages of development. In a study by Eleni Pappamihiel of Florida State University (2001), a group of female Mexican adolescent students,

recently immigrated to the US, with strong standardized testing results, were tested twice with ELAS (English Language Anxiety Scale), to measure anxiety levels in various language learning situations. They showed difficulty integrating socially into mainstream English classes, despite the presence of other students of Mexican origin in the group. Follow-up interviews revealed insecurities about their identity as immigrants and as women in unfamiliar context. These insecurities were not shared by other Mexican classmates who were more integrated into American society. The dynamics of the classroom played an important role in their insecurities and ultimately their success. Pappamihiel believed that the anxieties suffered in class were age-related in that they stemmed from an adolescent "fear of being laughed at or rebuked socially by their peers". This situation might be avoided "by providing more opportunities for female students to interact in safe groups in which they feel more comfortable". (p. 35)

Pappamihiel's (2001) study provided strong evidence that students of similar nationality, language and even academic levels do not necessarily have the same pedagogical needs, and may not be best suited to share a classroom. Both gender and nationality were contributing factors to the group dynamics of the classroom. This confirms Mathews-Aydinli's (2008) determination that a desire for and expectation of cultural integration plays an important role in language learning. A student's place in society drives a student's affect and it drives the pedagogy. This drive is not only determined by age. It is affected by a complex combination of factors that are examined below.

### 2.1.2 Gender as a Factor

The insecurities manifested in Pappamihiel's (2001) results were echoed in a similar examination of gender and ESL learning. Ali Loori, in a 2005 study, focussed in particular on ESL students in the United States from a wide range of nationalities and cultures in a single classroom. Using a standardized test that identifies types of intelligences, Loori determined that the dominant forms of intelligence at play in each

student's learning process were consistent with existing literature. Males tended to excel in logical/Mathematical Intelligence, while females scored higher in Intrapersonal Intelligence. These results show that males and females had different approaches to learning in a group, and that they had different views of their own self-determination and their own intelligence levels. Some of these insecurities were based on intrinsic factors of self-worth. Others can be attributed to extrinsic influences. Depending on a student's background, certain established cultural mind-sets were quietly at play. For example, as Loori (2005) described: "The type of environment molds the individual's social behaviors. It has been found that girls have been influenced by their parent's attitudes." (p. 85)

The study showed that female students often hold established notions on the potential of their own intelligence. They often feel insecurities about certain subjects that center mainly around the lack of opportunities in certain fields. In contrast, males were shown to hold their intelligence levels in higher overall esteem. This manifests itself in situations of group dynamics where female students "tend to prefer working alone, whereas male students preferred to work with a peer or in a group while learning." (Loori, 2005, p. 84) Since many ESL classrooms favour approaches that use group activities where males have a pedagogical advantage, female students could likely feel left out of the process.

It could be argued that Loori's (2005) findings were due to the incompatibility of a diverse classroom context, and that these results are skewed by problems arising from cultural integration. This view can be challenged by a study conducted at a Canadian Punjabi school with children learning English in an ethnically homogenous environment. In this study, Allyson Jule (2002) observed the share of spoken contribution in an ESL classroom, recording the precise word usage and time attributed to both teacher and participating students. Since spoken communication is a key factor in language learning, a quantitative measure of participation in discussions sheds some light on a student's learning potential. Jule found that the non-Punjabi Canadian teacher occupied the vast majority of the speaking time, and the remaining student share of participation was distributed disproportionately in favour of the male

students. Even in a mono-cultural classroom, female students did not participate nearly to the same extent as male students. This is consistent with both Loori (2005) and Pappamihiel's (2001) observations about female insecurities. Jule's study suggested these insecurities may be attributed to a male-dominated social dynamic.

Qualitative observations showed similar results. Jule (2002) observed that "Boys not only spoke more often, they made more substantive remarks when they did. (p. 47) This confirms the notion that in such an environment, males exhibit a higher degree of confidence and motivation in open discussion. She also pointed out the deep cultural influences from both students and teacher: "Perhaps the girls' silence was a response to the particular ways their teacher engaged in speech acts, or perhaps it was influenced by other variables such as cultural norms or age-related behaviors." (p. 47) Once again, the way in which a student sees him or herself in the context of the learning process has a significant effect on their participation.

### 2.1.3 Cultural Capital as a Factor

Ultimately, factors such as age, ethnicity, intelligence and gender boil down to the same difficulties. They all manifest themselves in the form of interpersonal insecurities, identity issues and anxiety about cultural expectations. In adult-education at CTD there are no standardized tests or pre-screening to determine these elements. The process is driven by self-determination rather than tangible academic objectives. Learning difficulties due to social insecurities do not manifest themselves in test scores or negative feedback. Presumably in the face of these discomforts, students simply drop out and never return. In a learning process without assessment, the decision between dropping out and staying on is the difference between success and failure.

In a 2006 study, Perreira, Mullan Harris and Lee analyzed the relationship between high school drop-out rates of students from immigrant and native families in the United States. Results showed that drop-out rates varied among ethnicities, regardless of whether they are first or second generation. They found that "capital"

had a more significant effect on graduation levels. Much of a student's success depends on the education levels of the parents (human capital), status in society (cultural capital), the quality of the educational environment (school capital), and the realistic expectations of their education (community capital). Each of these factors could come as an advantage or a disadvantage to a student integrating into a school system. With so many contributing factors at play, organizing students by similar capital may yield more significant results than organizing them by similar background.

Even so, different forms of capital manifest themselves differently with different ethnic groups depending on how many generations they have integrated. Those factors are then affected by access to facilities within the community. As Perriera et al. (2006) explained: "second generation children of Hispanic and Asian immigrants are less disadvantaged then their first-generation peers by the human capital background of their families. However, a lack of school social capital and community social capital continue to place them at risk of dropping out." (p. 530) By conceptualizing these issues into broader terms of capital, educators can begin to understand the effect of extrinsic factors on the learning process. But what effect does capital have on the student's identity as a learner?

In a study at a community college in California, Becker (2011) interviewed students who were transitioning from a non-credit ESL program to courses in a credit program. The observations made in these interviews showed us that different identities can be manifested by a student that go beyond culture, gender, and language. Their "cultural capital" had a significant influence on student's expectations of success. Becker stated,

> Individuals who immigrated with the right resources such as a strong educational background and well-established careers (i.e., high cultural capital) used the non-credit ESL program as leverage to social mobility and to help them reclaim a more centralized role in their new homeland. Conversely, immigrants who were marginalized in their countries of origin and driven to seek social and economic mobility in the United States had difficulty continuing along a desired academic pathway into credit. (p.15)

Regardless of their country of origin, gender or native language, students with high cultural capital had a clearer sense of purpose and fewer problems with integration. Students with lower cultural capital tended to have more "intervening life circumstances", had lower sense of self-worth and opportunity. Becker explained, "Unlike their counterparts with high cultural capital, maintaining stability in wage earnings took priority over school when they experienced conflict in terms of time and energy." (p. 21) Students who made a successful transition to credit-programs tended to have their success clearly and tangibly assessed, while students in non-credit programs have their idea of success tangled in a complicated process of cultural integration. This is consistent with Pike, Kuh & McCormick's (2011) findings on identity and acceptance in relation to levels of engagement in the learning community.

Notions of language identity manifest themselves on a cultural level in Quebec's distinctly multi-cultural environment. Students learning English in order to integrate as immigrants to a new country have different needs than students learning English as a foreign language on their own turf. Specific cultural circumstances have a significant effect on their learning, regardless of their educational background. This is particularly true in Quebec where cultural dynamics are deeply rooted in language.

To the recent immigrant or refugee whose first of many steps to assimilation is learning the language, language schools present English as an essential "instrument" in the process of employment. In an effort to provide a universally relevant English, educators overlook the importance of the students' individual beliefs about language acquisition. As demonstrated by Warringer (2007) in a case study following the progress of three Sudanese refugee women, a well-motivated drive to learn can be hampered by a conflict of ideologies. The intentions of schools to provide the language skills necessary for integration into the workplace can be vastly different from the expectations and beliefs of the students themselves. These women had fled the turmoil of their countries with their families to the promise of safety in the U.S. They had traded a position of solid cultural assimilation with no

safety or economic opportunity, for the promise of safety and economic opportunity with no solid cultural assimilation.

Often newcomers' enthusiasm turns to disappointment when they realize they have been led by an "assumption that English-language learning leads to – or results in - a secure sense of belonging and membership in the US context." (Warringer, 2007, p 344) It is not long before they experience the reality that "…many immigrants and refugees (…) remain excluded from meaningful participation in local communities even after they demonstrate a long term commitment to studying English full time, working long hours in dead-end entry-level jobs, and contributing to the daily functioning of local and national economies." (Warringer, 2007, p 349) The promise of access to English-speaking culture that comes with proficiency in English falls short, and refugees are left to deal with a slow and seemingly impossible cultural integration. A learning process that begins with a strong sense of resolve and zeal, quickly degenerates into an identity crisis and marginalization. Without some insight into a student's particular context, it can be frustrating for educators to see a student showing strong signs of learning potential and commitment seeming lose their drive without explanation.

When it comes to learning ESL, most studies place the language learner in the context of a process of cultural integration, or as a learner of a foreign language. Adult Education in Quebec, however, presents a different set of challenges. As an English language learner, the French Quebecer has a unique profile, with its own insecurities, and its own cultural capital, and its own group dynamics.

McGill University professor Lise Winer (2007), through a series of interviews with ESL teachers in Quebec, described how these dynamics play out with French-Canadian students. She pointed out that to many, English is both a "second and a foreign language – sometimes within the same school". State-sanctioned efforts to maintain the cultural integrity of the French language in Quebec often result in ambivalence and even antipathy towards the English language in public-school educated French Quebecers. This unique cultural phenomenon categorizes English as both a minority language and a symbol of cultural dominance. In such a case, a

student's cultural relationship with a language dictates the manner in which it is perceived and learned. A French Quebecer in Quebec is likely to see English as a "foreign language". This creates a potential difference of approach to immigrant students who take a more integrative orientation to English, seeing it as another "second language" step towards assimilation.

It may seem that French Quebecers and immigrants live in the same world, and are learning the same language, but do they belong in the same classroom? The challenge of adult educators is to place students in the right group, with the pedagogy suited to their needs.

### 2.1.4 Pedagogical Approach as a Factor

A common theme has been the need for matching a student's pedagogical needs with an informed pedagogical approach. This section looks at how instructional design (Gibbons, 2008, Cummins, 2007), course content (Auerbach, 1993), and the cultivation of inclusive pedagogy (Schwartzer, 2009) based on the application of broad theories, are instrumental in shaping the students' attitudes towards learning. (Bodycott, 2006)

With so many social, cultural and linguistic dynamics to factor in, how can educators design a universal approach to language learning, that also harnesses diversity, all the while taking into account student's individual needs? The process calls for them to step back from the overwhelming quantity of factors and data, and begin sorting details into broader concepts. In his 2009 article, David Schwartzer described the importance of seeing the student as a "whole learner". Every student comes with a complicated mixture of experiences and motivations. He explains, "Whole language implies that we look at adult learners as whole persons rather than just ESL learners. It asks us to see the learners in our classes as parents, spouses, employees or business owners, neighbours, churchgoers, and members of various communities ". (p. 28) It is not enough for the student to adapt to the educational

circumstances. Educators must also check their assumptions about language learners. Schwartzer stated:

> the ESL instructor may find different responses to the new culture among learners that influence their approach to the new language. Some may not want to adapt to the new culture or are experiencing culture shock. Others may be adapting very well to the new living environment, culture, and community. Some adult learners are very motivated to learn ESL because they need it to communicate with their colleagues at work or to obtain a promotion, accomplish educational goals, help their children with school assignments, or just feel confident speaking the language of the community in which they live. (p. 27)

Schwartzer (2009) suggested applying broader theories to teaching that present a more inclusive and inviting environment. This includes a more holistic approach to presenting content *in situ* of its own cultural context. In order to maintain a healthy balance of power, he recommended integrating opportunities for students to guide the development and make their own inquiries. This involves favouring formative evaluations with ongoing feedback so students can get a sense of a developmental process. The overall goal is for students to feel involvement in a community that they can identify with as learners.

Peter Bodycott (2006) from the Hong Kong Institute of Education asserted that the attitudes, values and beliefs held by students can be shaped by teachers. He found that cultural cross-currents occur when the literacy and language values of the home culture are not congruent with the teacher, school or educational community. Often teachers are not even aware of their own cultural proclivities, causing cross-currents in their classrooms. This dynamic has a significant effect on overall attitudes about the target language.

These differences are not always squarely based on social beliefs. The very character of the language itself influences how students ultimately use it. Bodycott (2006) explained that cultural differences between the languages such as grammar structures, written forms, and pronunciation create particular pitfalls and require particular approaches. These differences affect motivation in language acquisition. Teachers and students are bound by their institutions. School policies, too, have an

effect on the learning process. The teaching style, materials and pedagogical objectives all play a part in student success and are manifested in the skills being valued by institutions. When designing a course, the values a teacher or institution holds are reflected in the content and means of assessment.

Studies by Gibbons (2008) and Cummings (2007) illustrated the association of teaching styles and outcomes. Pauline Gibbons (2008) referred to initiatives designed to specifically bridge language gaps on a basic level as "drill-and-practice activities". Her study looked at how language students respond to activities that favor higher-order thinking skills. Her findings showed that traditional testing methods can be prohibitive and demoralizing. Students are more engaged when activities are cognitively challenging than when they involve conventional low-level work. She demonstrated how exercises requiring transferring information from one form to another, shifting between the concrete and the theoretical, moving from every-day language to discipline-related language, and making informal conversation rather than dialogic or substantive conversation enhance the use of complex language and abstract concepts. Allowing access to a variety of appropriate language types avoids the 'dilution' of language often associated with curriculum simplification. With such a learning setting students do more than reproduce an expert's model. It requires a role reversal for the learner, who then mirrors the expert or adult. The student is then involved in a sort of "cognitive apprenticeship".

The difference between approaches that favour integration and those that cater to instrumental learning often comes down to language immersion. According to Cummins (2007), language teachers and learners have long considered the benefits of target-language only classrooms as self-evident, especially in cases where students come from diverse language backgrounds. This type of "blocking" is intended to produce learning that resembles how a child learns a language. However, as seen with Slev (2015) adults and children do not learn the same way. Adult learners carry a number of established competencies to the table that are important to the process.

He observed that using students' first language in class is typically believed by researchers and teachers to be a failure brought on by instructional conditions. For

speakers of minority languages or language learners in a position of integration, the mono-linguistic “two solitudes” approach harbors a doctrine that reinforces inequities in a broader society. His study found that a certain amount of interaction between languages can promote a better understanding of both languages, especially in an environment where both are used. On a developmental level, he recommended promoting both languages simultaneously as a means of cultivating the ability to apply competencies in either language. On an affective level, being bilingual is often admired by peers, especially when their language abilities are applied in the classroom through collaboration with classmates and other community members. Many language students routinely perform in both languages as cultural liaison between their families and their community. Cummins (2007) encouraged educators to embrace this learning strategy to help students spread meta-linguistic awareness.

Auerbach (1993), in an analytic research of existing studies in ESL instruction, revealed patterns that challenged the belief in the benefits of target-language only instruction. In a number of cases, students who represented a minority linguistic culture in their own country had been shown to thrive better with instructors who use their own language with the target language. Auerbach (1993) attributed this to the anxiety of sharing a learning community with members of a dominant culture. These subtle cultural dynamics are not always apparent to instructors, or even to those in the position of power, but they can produce levels of anxiety that are an obstacle to learning.

Maynak and Bouchereau Bauer (2009) noticed the achievement gap between ELs (English Learners) and EOs (Monolingual English Speakers) in U.S. public schools. They concluded that simple issues of vocabulary knowledge were a powerful factor in students’ performance. They recommend cultivating unilingual skills in linking words and direct meaning, inferring meaning using context, morphology and identifying cognates. Familiarity with a set of commonly used words has been found to be successful in leveling the playing field for students in an academic culture where test scores are instrumental in the acquisition of resources for schools.

Spinelli (2008) took a step further towards determining student's strengths and weaknesses. She agreed with Salend and Salinas (2003) that apparent learning problems are often nothing more than the residual effect of acquiring two languages simultaneously. Contributing factors can also include health care factors and cultural differences in values, beliefs and attitudes. Contrary to the policies described by Maynak and Bouchereau Bauer (2009), Spinelli (2008) argues that ELs should not be assessed solely on standardized norm-referenced tests. Schools with low test scores often begrudge their high number of ELs for bringing down averages. Under the "No Child Left Behind" system in the US, where school budgets are determined by student outcomes, lower overall results can mean denied access to education and limited curriculum. The subsequently negative impact on ELs' self-perception and their perception of others can be damaging to their integration and future potential.

Besides condemning central policies that reward and punish schools based on achievement, Spinelli (2008) recommended that assessments also take into account teachers' instructional style in relation to students' educational history. Through interviews, observations and informal testing procedures, students can share data about their situation at home, in school, in the academic classroom, and in other unstructured school situations. A "cultural audit" determines whether the student is in the most supportive learning environment and whether the teacher has the means to motivate positive behaviour while providing high expectations. Ultimately, the method must suit the situation, and the best success comes from assessing a student's particular social and cultural context as an essential part of designing a learning process. Better knowledge of student profiles and classroom dynamics can also help teachers tailor the most effective instructional strategies.

### 2.1.5 Ethnicity as a factor

The cultural anxiety presented by Auerbach (1993) echoes the underlying power dynamic within a group as seen in studies by Pappamihiel (2001), Rueda and Becky Chen's (2005), Ajayi (2008), Salend and Salinas (2003) and Ollerhead (2012).

Prohibiting native language use in the classroom may trigger existing feelings of disempowerment, whereas a culturally homogenous group may cultivate a stronger sense of shared investment. Ultimately the way students learn is determined by who they are, and their relationship with society. A student's attitude about the TL shapes the manner in which it is acquired.

Rueda and Becky Chen's (2005) studied how these principles apply to students of Asian origin integrating into American society, raising questions about the influence of "socio-cognitive" and "sociocultural" factors. Students who identified with the target culture were more eager to participate in the culture or community of the TL if they intended to eventually be accepted as a member. Rueda and Becky Chen's (2005) study showed that while some students benefited from better long-term cultural acquisition by integrated motivation, Asian immigrants in particular showed better language acquisition results by a more instrumental attitude about learning the language. This leaves us with questions about the influence of cultural beliefs and values on language learning and the validity of current practices.

Matsuda (2003), who conducted a similar study of ESL students in Japan, makes the distinction between the different "Englishes" learned in ESL and the misconceptions associated with them. Students and educators in Japan, when interviewed on their beliefs about ESL instruction, were found to idealize native-speaking teachers from "inner-circle" varieties of English (British, American, Canadian) regardless of their intended association with those cultures (p. 722). Course content in the form of culturally specific pronunciations and usages drew focus away from fundamental elements of communication better suited to an international form of the language. Students acquiring English in order to facilitate communication in an international context had different learning objectives than those learning in order to integrate into culturally specific circles.

Matsuda (2003) worried that students were being pressured to conform culturally, rather than to simply communicate in the target language (p.721). These discrepancies carry a heavy charge in the fragile language climate of Quebec where

classes are composed of students both learning English as a foreign language and as a local one. (Winer, 2007, p. 492)

When student needs are at odds with a pedagogical approach, the problems often lie with the materials being used in the course rather than the instructors particular teaching style. Gilmore (2007) analyzed a wide range of ESL textbooks to explore the use of authentic language in comparison to contrived language and how it affects student engagement. While purporting to be designed for "real world" English use, many textbooks contained examples of speech patterns that were not consistent with authentic conversations. They placed more importance on grammatical structures than portraying typical verbal exchanges. Some exchanges may be common among native speakers, but as we have seen with Pappamihiel (2001), language learners often become de-motivated by verbal exchanges and social situations that they cannot handle culturally. Matsuda (2003) also showed us that a preference for "real world" English (used internationally in pop-culture) or "inner-circle" English (used exclusively in academia) is relative to the student`s motivation and learning goals. Matsuda stated: "The idealization of inner-circle varieties of English seems at odds with the stated motivations for teaching English in the current curriculum." (p. 721) Students whose goal is to participate in a global culture will find little practical application of their inner-circle English.

Gilmore (2007) agreed that language learners need tools appropriate to their particular situation. These tools are not limited to textbooks. Some students may require target-language only approaches, others will benefit from dual language approaches. Auerbach, (1993), Salend & Salinas' (2003), Pappamihiel's (2001) and Winer (2007) showed that the socio-ethnic demographics of a class necessarily dictate the learning approach used in the classroom. They believed in designing interactions that are rooted in both the singularity of a student`s individual experience and the plurality of a diverse classroom.

Garcia & Sylvan (2011) conducted a study of non-participant qualitative observation of New York international school classrooms, students from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds were given project-based learning tasks. They

found that by adapting to a more universal approach and encouraging linguistic free-association among students, they could establish their own relationship with the various languages and develop their own cross-cultural communication strategies. By straying from traditional schooling practices and standards, they observed their plurilingual, multi-cultural class to develop cross-cultural communication strategies that are more relevant to a globalized world. The authors do not necessarily recommend these approaches in most cases as they can inhibit progress if teachers are not properly trained.

Similarly, Beatrice A. Gibbons (2003) presented a constructivist approach that integrated students from diverse backgrounds by promoting active learning methods that fill the gap between field-dependent (classroom contrived) and field-independent (freely experienced) activities. Non-language-related tasks and science-related games and experiments help students to construct knowledge through experience and cooperative learning activities. By monitoring stages of development through observation and scheduled meetings, school administrators can then better facilitate constructivist learning opportunities.

Souto-Manning (2006) related her experience in the pitfalls of raising a child in a multi-lingual environment. From a Portuguese-speaking house in an English speaking world, she makes a case for bilingualism through social interactions. She believed that children develop an understanding of multilingualism as they are introduced to multicultural contexts. She challenged common misconceptions about second language learning being confusing for children. Her study conceded that when children acquire more than one language, temporary delays may occur. She argued, however, that these are temporary setbacks, and that the long-term advantages of two languages are positive skills rather than limits to learning and intellectual development.

Her mostly anecdotal accounts offer some useful insight into difficulties that occur due to misconceptions about the cultural importance of language acquisition held by teachers, parents and students. She believed that language gaps are overcome by multilingualism. She called for integrative, long-term culturally-based language

acquisition that exploits the existing language diversity rather than one that favours unilingual approaches.

These studies leave educators with more questions than answers. It would seem that the more teachers know about their students, the less clarity there is in a unifying system of pedagogical design. The most promising studies, however, are those that collect tangible quantitative data from individuals and apply it to broad theories on group dynamics with the goal of improving overall results.

### 2.1.6 Building Student Profiles

Teachers are the experts, so it is for them to recognize the importance of their students' cultural context. Not satisfied with simply being "open" to cultural diversity, Lasisi Ajayi in 2008 conducted a study where high school ESL teachers from throughout Los Angeles were interviewed on their awareness of their students' socio-linguistic context. They were asked a series of pertinent questions on a broad range of subjects from language use, to assigned reading material, to the teachers' knowledge of students' particular cultural background.

Ajayi found that while teachers were sensitive to student diversity and aware of the cultural dynamics at play, there remained institutional barriers to optimizing the learning environment. Ministerial target-language only policies have served to culturally alienate certain students, cultivating shame and exclusion. Standardized testing, based directly on language proficiency, did not sufficiently assess the contextual needs of a student. Factors such as cultural relationship with the language, identity, and cultural immersion contribute to learning affect and ultimately student outcomes. These types of problems can be avoided by more effectively assigning classes.

Ajayi's study raised relevant points about the role of assessing student profiles when designing classes. Pre-profiling students based on their socio-cultural circumstances plays an important role in creating an optimum group dynamic that

maximizes the overall learning potential of all. But creating an effective evaluation process can be challenging.

Salend and Salinas (2003) also focused on problems experienced by new immigrant students immersed in foreign language learning environments. With the help of "multidisciplinary teams" they put groups of recently integrated students to exhaustive interviews covering topics ranging from educational background to comparative success to health and developmental history. They then related this qualitative data to the school's instructional history. They found that problems students experience when learning a second language often erroneously manifest themselves as learning disabilities: poor performance, inattention, lack of social skills, and emotional imbalance. However, while this proved to be a healthy exercise in intercultural outreach, it quickly became laborious, bogged-down with data, and ineffective as a feasible and tangible process.

Ajayi (2008) and Salend and Salinas (2003) have shown us what can be done within culturally homogenous groups within a school system, but adult-education classes have a wide diversity of age, nationality, educational background and language. How do educators apply similar standardized testing systems when faced with diverse ESL groups that have little or no common language?

In 2012, Sue Ollerhead conducted a study of teachers' educational approaches and their effect on student participation. In a beginner-level ESL course in Australia, she collected data on the language learners' identities "many of whom have refugee backgrounds. [Students] are thus actively engaged in navigating new and unfamiliar social, cultural and economic networks, where 'language learner' is but one of several new identities assigned to them." (p. 64, 65)

Ollerhead (2012), with a team of teachers, observed ESL groups looking for the levels of student participation and the social dynamics of the classroom. Student profiles were also established through interviews with interpreters. While the observations yielded valuable insight to the teachers involved, and showed data useful to the individual school, this methodology too got bogged down. Furthermore, it was intrusive of the teacher and student's time. The power dynamics inherent in the

teacher-student relationship and the language level of the students quickly became an obstacle to collecting data that was meaningful outside of the given context. Also Ollerland noticed that when observing in this manner, teachers "often represent them [students] in deficit terms of how they are 'lacking' in certain knowledge or skills, or according to what they cannot do." (p. 68)

In a similar attempt to identify the factors that are key to the success of an adaptive learning system Ya-huei Wang and Hung-Chang Liao (2011) focused their attention away from their student's specific problems and focused more on the common ways in which these problems manifest themselves. They designed a study that targeted the four most important individual learning identities of students (gender, learning motivation, cognitive type and learning style) in an effort to adapt to their learning styles.

Some 300 university students filled out a questionnaire targeting information about gender, cognitive style, learning style and motivation, giving each factor a numerical value. Students who were otherwise consistent in academic achievement were presented the same learning materials in a different order and their adherence to the material was measured in correlation to their learning styles and test results. They concluded that "before delivering course content and strategies to students, teachers should analyze students' preferences and characteristics, because students have many individual differences that are relevant to their learning performance. A fixed learning sequence is not suitable for every student." (p. 78) Unlike Ajayi's more comprehensive analysis of student's needs, Wang and Liao (2011) presented a more quantitative approach to collecting data on their students. They state that "it is impossible to design a personalized learning environment to accommodate each student's learning needs. However, it might be possible for teachers to access students' characteristics in advance and to extract their optimal learning sequences on the basis of these characteristics." (p. 78) The result of this study was a set of student profiles as well as a useful overview of the group at large. Instructors could optimize the manner in which course content was introduced based on tangible data. Wang and

Liao's (2011) approach to student profiles success lies in its focus on improving the overall success of the group, rather than solving individual problems.

Once this basic data is applied, simple changes to a pedagogical approach can have a significant effect on the group dynamics of a classroom. But how do educators create effective student profiles without getting lost in an exhaustive process? The key is to target the most relevant data, and to focus on the most efficient way to collect and process the data.

## 2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In a learning environment without evaluations like Dawson CTD, a major motivational factor has been removed. Much of the existing literature on student motivation correlates student's academic achievement with the results of a wide variety of standardized tests. (Dörnyei, & Chan, 2013; Waninge, Dörnyei & De Bot, 2014; Oxford, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vallerand, 2000). Other studies base their conclusions on qualitative data (Pappamihiel, 2001; Gilmore, 2007; Ajayi, 2008; Garcia & Sylvan, 2011) through interviews and case studies of individual students and teachers. A variety of studies have been carried out to tailor language programs to specific circumstances (Kelley & Kohnert, 2012; Pappamihiel, 2000; Gilmore, 2007; Ajayi, 2008; Sugishita et al., 2012). These programs with multi-lingual platforms, mentoring programs, uni-cultural, multi-cultural and transcultural approaches have all had limited success, often their approach was too elaborate and invasive. The data retrieved from these processes was exhaustive and inconclusive. Additionally, much of the research described in the literary review involved non-English speaking students in US schools. To date, none of the research models in these studies adequately provides a framework for the unique circumstances of this particular context. Dawson CTD courses offer an ideal testing ground: a student population with all forms of diversity, without the influence of standardized summative evaluations on their motivation.

### 2.2.1 Focusing on Motivation

In a learning environment where the student's own drive determines success, the most useful student data is that which explores the elements that effect motivation. There are so many factors that can inhibit even the strongest motivation. Each language learner is affected by a combination of factors. Reasons may include immigration, travel, cultural integration, interpersonal relations, and professional development to name a few.

Ultimately, beyond a student's educational background, there are as many reasons to learn a language as there are students. The existing literature reveals the broad range of data to be collected, but no clear quantitative method of retrieving it. In creating a method to collect a data set that is relevant to educators, each specific language-learning context involves its own motivational proclivities, and misconceptions. The factor that unifies all language students, regardless of their background is motivation. Rather than identifying the factors that influence motivation, why not attempt to identify the types of motivation themselves, and which ones drive the student to learn?

Vallerand (2000) described the basic elements of motivation as either intrinsic, in that students want to learn, extrinsic, in that they are being pressured to learn, or that they are amotivated, in that they are neither. (Amotivated students do not factor into this equation, as they do not factor into a non-credit continuing education context.) This study used this difference as an important identifying factor in conceptualizing individual motivation types.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) developed much of the early groundwork for motivational theories by establishing the distinction between instrumental and integrated motivation. Instrumental learners are driven by a practical need to acquire skills or knowledge. Integrative learners are more interested in the identity derived from the knowledge. Instrumental language learners take a more rational approach to the content and tend to see it as a tool or a means to an end. Integrative language learners are invested in a life-long process with the goal of integration into a culture.

While neither of these important differences is necessarily more desirable, each has its own set of values, and its own pedagogical needs.

Whether students are better suited to instrumental or integrative approaches, it is clear that basic variables determine how a group is best taught, how a group works together, and how students learn within these groups. Obtainable student profile information (Kelley & Kohnert, 2012; Sugishita et al., 2012; Pappamihiel, 2001; Pike, et al. 2011), when properly utilized, is worth far more than its face value. It can be synthesized to form more cohesive learning groups and match students to more productive pedagogical approaches (Ajayi, 2008; Garcia & Sylvan, 2011). This data can in turn improve the educator's ability to cope with the challenges of diversity (Ajayi, 2008; Auerbach, 1993; Matsuda, 2003; Gilmore, 2007) and make a more significant difference in classroom culture. Language-learning environments, sustained by student affect, without the drive of extrinsic motivation, unchecked by tangible assessment, thrive on healthy interpersonal relations. Students learn by using the language in classroom contexts as well as in social situations. This encourages language learning outside of the school, while reinforcing its real-world relevance. Active-learning approaches, compelled by intrinsic and integrated motivation, are more effective in the long-term and tend to result in more complete cultural integration. Results-driven strategies (Maynak & Bouchereau Bauer, 2006) that focus on test scores tend to be driven by instrumental and extrinsic motivation.

Motivation, whether rational or irrational, is a simple word to describe this complex web of factors that compel students. It is as much the degree of motivation a student has, as the nature of their motivation that determines the outcome. Identifying a student`s circumstances is as important as identifying the technical aspects of their language needs. Since educators cannot access all of the data, nor will students necessarily be willing or able to yield it, the key is to focus on the elements that are shared by all students. In a multi-cultural classroom, the only truly common trait is motivation.

Dornyei and Ushioda (2013) described motivation as "why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are

going to pursue it." (p.4). They identified many types of motivation, however, "because the number of potential determinants of human action is very extensive, a great deal of effort in motivation research has focused on drawing up reductionist models." (p.8). They emphasized the need to establish "key theories" in motivation: "rather than being merely descriptive by listing all the relevant motives, such constructs are theory driven (…) reductionist models are able to achieve increased precision in explaining the interrelationship of the constituents, and the components can also be operationalized to allow for the empirical testing of the model." (p. 8) These "key theories" were outlined in this study and reduced to a model that can be applied to quantitative data. By collecting information strictly pertaining to motivation, rather than specific cultural context, and mapping it as a motivational profile, tangible data was studied and patterns emerged.

Ryan and Deci's (2000) "Self-determination Theory" provided its own basic taxonomy of motivation types. They explained that when students are intrinsically motivated, their behaviors tend to be self-imposed and endorsed by society in general and that their actions are produced by "inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence". (p.55) They also presented a range of theories that address specific roles and identities. This includes a student's investment in their role as a language learner, their relationship with the goals and rewards, support from their community, and how they identify with the language and culture. This study used investment as an important identifying factor in motivational profiles.

The challenge was to find factors that are relevant to language acquisition and correlate them with the available measure of success. The first step is an investigation was to build on broad theories. Following Vallerand's (2000) intrinsic or extrinsic model, it was important to know if the elements that drive a student come from within or if they were external in origin. From there, sub-categories were established. Ryan and Deci's (2000) "Self-determination Theory" elaborated on these basic categories. They presented a range of theories that address specific roles and identities. This includes a student's investment in their role as a language learner, their relationship with the goals and rewards, support from their community, and how

they identify with the language and culture. These forms of intrinsic motivation are connected to one's sense of task "and exists in the relation between individuals and activities". (p.56)

Ryan and Deci (2000) described how extrinsic motivation also comes in different forms with different pedagogical needs. "Internalization" describes how students perform activities that they would not gladly undertake were it not for their social importance. This often occurs in situations where a language is learned as professional development or official language training. They learn in order to better participate in the culture, but not necessarily to invest themselves culturally. Similarly, "External Regulation" is a system of reward and praise that originates from another person or entity. Typically, the student learns, completely out of cultural context, in order to satisfy the expectations of an educational system. The challenge for educators is "how to motivate students to value and self-regulate such activities, and without external pressure, to carry them out on their own". (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p.60)

In traditional educational contexts, standardized testing is expected to provide sufficient extrinsic motivation to obscure student's specific motivational profile. With Ryan & Deci's (2000) "Introjected Regulation", the student is led by rules and demands that pressure behaviour by sanctions or promised rewards. The demands are not overt, but are sufficient for the student to comply. With "Identified Regulation", the student has come to value the behaviour while identifying with and accepting the regulatory process. In this case, the student works at conforming to the image of a good student, or being good at a certain task in exchange for affirmation. These students are more invested in classroom culture and require the company of like-minded, long-term driven students.

With "Integrated regulation" the desired behaviour finds itself embedded among other values, needs and identities. These students invest in the process because it has become who they are, and because it has become important to them, rather than being important to others. These students are more interested in a wider range of

cultural knowledge. Unlike their extrinsically motivated internalized classmates, they focus on better communication through correct grammar and pronunciation.

Gardner (2007) elaborated on this distinction by establishing two fundamental forms of language learning orientation. Investment orientation describes a student's intention to embrace the target culture. He or she is investing in cultural and linguistic integration, whether intrinsically (seeking to assimilate into an English speaking community) or extrinsically (being pressured to integrate into an English speaking environment). Instrumental orientation describes students' intention to improve their ability to speak the target language. They are investing in tangible improvement of a skill, whether intrinsically (a personal desire to learn a foreign language) or extrinsically (as a requirement of professional development). Identifying the degree of investment is fundamental to effective course design, determining the pace, pedagogical approach and course content.

Constructing student motivational profiles is the first step in reducing obstacles to learning and optimizing the learning experience. The goal of this study was to collect data on the motivational factors that drive each student, and to conceptualize this data into broad theoretical terms. In this case, since Quebec adult-education English as a Second Language courses at CTD are without summative assessments, the motivational factors involved were not skewed by an overall extrinsic instrumental need to satisfy a standardized evaluation. Each motivational factor invariably fell under one of four basic categories: intrinsic investment, intrinsic instrument, extrinsic investment, extrinsic instrument. This process additionally identified obstacles that impede healthy student interaction and preclude the learning dynamics.

### 2.2.2 Research Questions

The existing literature shows that the wide range of factors that influence student success in language acquisition ultimately effects motivation in common ways. By identifying the nature of the students' motivation, rather than the factors

that contribute to it, real steps can be taken towards improving the overall pedagogical approach. Through a series of key questions to students, this study attempted to identify each student's motivational profile to see if the presence of certain motivation types correlated with student success. It was an important step in establishing an effective approach to improving pedagogical design. Educators apply tangible data to students learning needs. Students benefit by being placed in more optimized groups with better suited pace and content. Administrators gain insight into their student body and invest in suitable infrastructure and long-term initiatives.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the role of motivation in ESL learning, in particular at Dawson College CTD. The research questions for this study comes to this:

- What motivational factors drive the students of ESL courses at Dawson College CTD?
- How effective is the questionnaire in identifying these motivational factors?
- Which of these motivational factors are connected to success?

# CHAPTER THREE
# METHODOLOGY

Based on the success shown by the quantitative approaches of Wang and Liao (2011), this study similarly focused on collecting quantifiable dated related to theories regarding motivation. Wang and Liao (2011) sought to create profiles on their students' basic learning characteristics, stating that "it is crucial to link teaching strategies and learning profiles if students' learning outcomes are to be maximized" (p. 68). Through questionnaires, their study collected data from students on "gender, learning motivation, cognitive style and learning style" (p. 69) assigning each factor a numerical code. Learning motivation was measured using an adapted version of Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, a questionnaire of 104 targeted questions with responses measured on a Likert Scale. These codes placed students in a rank of low, medium or high for each element of their profile.

Once these profiles were established, the participants were given a series of quizzes that presented information in a variety of sequences. The quizzes tested which learning sequences the students took to by their level of reading comprehension. The results were applied to an algorithm "in order to extract the optimal learning sequences for that student". (p. 72) The first step in the process was to place the profiles in ranked performance groups, "the lowest performance group and the highest performance group are determined using the percentage increase in the grade as a basis." (p. 73) Then these groups "were tested according to the four factors (gender, learning motivation, cognitive type and learning style." (p. 73) Through process of elimination, the least successful learning sequences were removed from each round of testing until the optimum learning sequences remained. The results could establish which sequences worked best for participants based on their motivation level, gender and learning style.

Wang and Liao's (2001) particular concern for student profiles with quantifiable measures inspired much of the methodological basis of this study. By

using a modified version of Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, Wang and Liao conformed their data collection to the cultural and linguistic needs of their Taiwanese students. Since students at Dawson College CTD English courses come from a wide range of educational, linguistic and cultural backgrounds, the questionnaire used to collect data on motivation for this study also had to be adapted. The data collected also necessarily had to identify the four key motivational types (intrinsic, extrinsic, instrument, and investment), as well as their factors of agency. The Likert scale was dropped in favour of key multiple choice questions, and the questions were simplified to a more manageable language level. The resulting survey had 7 questions, each with 3 or 4 choices for answers.

Since Wang and Liao's (2001) study involved students from a credit program with standardized measures of success through evaluations, student profile data was applied to the results of a battery of tests. In a study such as this one, where there were no tangible summative evaluations, success was determined simply by a participant's completion of the course. This data was collected at the end of the process from administration, and did not directly involve the participants.

The following is a description of the process used to collect data in the creation of student motivational profiles. Details about the steps taken, the methods used, and its analysis are provided. This includes the tools used to collect information and an explanation of their relevance.

## 3.1 LOGISTICAL CONCERNS

The process had the cooperation of Dawson College CTD. With respect to the professional integrity of administrators at CTD, legitimate concerns were raised about the activities of this research impeding on the regular daily operations. This presented some fixed limitations to the number of available students and the restricted time frame for this research. Assurances were made that the study would not disrupt the students' experience at CTD.

Rather than collecting data on a longitudinal scale, the study drew from a small selection of volunteer students from each of the intermediate and advanced levels (levels 3, 4 and 5) during a single session. The process of filling out surveys took no longer than 15 minutes of course time. The study constituted little or no risk to the students. None of the students was taken from the researcher's own courses.

Once the questionnaire was completed and returned to the researcher, the responses were combined with other participant's responses and applied to the process of analysis. Success in the course entailed being awarded a certificate by CTD based on a minimum of 80% attendance in the course. With cooperation from CTD, the researcher had access to data pertaining to participant's successful completion only, and not their specific attendance records or any other data. These records were only accessed with the participant's explicit consent as provided in the consent form.

## 3.2 ETHICAL CONCERNS

Participation in the process followed all of the principles of standard ethical practices as presented in "Ethics Guidelines for Educational Research and Research Proposals", Appendix 2 in *Guide for the Research Component in the Master Teacher Program (MTP), PERFORMA.*

Participants' consent was ensured by the standard consent form attached to the questionnaire (See Appendix E). This form clearly outlines the terms of the participant's involvement in the research process, and explicitly confirms their informed consent in both participation in the study, and access to CTD success records. Finally, this project was approved by the Dawson College Research Ethics Board before undertaking data collection. See Appendix D for the Ethics Certificate.

## 3.3 MOTIVATION CATEGORIES

The questions on the questionnaire (see Appendix B) were designed to identify the students' motivation based on the broad theories detailed in the

Conceptual Framework. Drawing from definitions offered by Vallerand's (2000), Ryan & Deci's (2000), and Gardner and Lambert (1972), the researcher has developed categories useful for analysis. Table 2 is a graphic breakdown of each motivational and agency category and an example of a typical manifestation of that category.

Table 2

Motivational and Agency Categories

| Intrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Investment |
|---|---|
| Positive:<br>Interested in integration<br>Negative:<br>Cannot relate to new culture | Positive:<br>Pressure to integrate<br>Negative:<br>Guilt for betraying culture |
| Intrinsic Instrument | Extrinsic Instrument |
| Positive:<br>Practical need for self-improvement<br>Negative:<br>No real need | Positive:<br>Opportunities to use language in real context<br>Negative:<br>Unrealistic expectation |
| Intrinsic Agency | Extrinsic Agency |
| Positive:<br>Belief in own ability<br>Negative:<br>Belief you are not a language learner | Positive:<br>Support from family or employer<br>Negative:<br>Family or work obligations |

Data drawn from the surveys were transferred into factors contributing positively or negatively to the six specific motivational categories detailed in Table 2. There are four motivational categories, representing combinations of intrinsic, extrinsic, investment, and instrumental. Then there are two categories of agency: intrinsic and extrinsic. The specific circumstances of each factor are conceptualized

into broad theories of motivation. This study focuses on the common elements of each factor in the way they manifest themselves.

### 3.3.1 Intrinsic Investment

When a student is invested intrinsically, he or she is driven by a desire that is linked to personal identity. In the case of language learning, the student sees him or herself as integrating into the culture of the language, or as seen with Pike et al. (2011), engaging in the culture of the classroom. When intrinsic investment is negative, the student does not have any intention of adopting the TL culture, or as seen with Auerbach (1993), the student does not embrace the identity of a learner.

### 3.3.2 Extrinsic Investment

Similarly relating to personal identity, when extrinsic investment is high, the student is pressured by outside factors to adopt the culture of the language. The student may feel the need to integrate, if not the desire, in order to conform to an identity that others rely on. Pappamihiel's (2001) showed us the importance of fitting into the new classroom culture, as well as the TL culture. When extrinsic investment is negative, the student may have feelings of betrayal from others for entertaining a culture that they are at odds with. Or as seen with Winer (2007), they may have anxieties about the cultural context of the learning process.

### 3.3.3 Intrinsic Instrument

With instrumental learning the student's goal is to acquire the language as a tool. It is a useful asset or skill that can bring some direct benefit to the student personally. Mathews-Aydinli (2008) has demonstrated how self-directed learning takes a different pedagogical approach than integrative learning. Negative intrinsic instrument is an indication that the student has no real opportunity to use the language

on a personal level outside of the learning process which leaves him or her uninspired. We have seen also with Slev (2015) that the content of the course may not be suited to the student's needs.

### 3.3.4 Extrinsic Instrument

In this case, the student is working to acquire a skill in order to satisfy the needs of others. A student may be learning at the request of an employer, or to meet a certain requirement. There is a certain degree of dependence on outside support, as well as expectation being met. This also relates to Becker's (2011) study on the expectations of academic success and their relation to cultural capital. Extrinsic instrument is negative when there is no support, and little expectation from others to succeed, or no real opportunities to apply the language. Jule (2002) clearly demonstrated how broad cultural attitudes can have an effect on a student's expectation of success.

### 3.3.5 Intrinsic Agency

Agency represents a student's actual ability to accomplish the task. Intrinsic agency comes from a student's belief in their ability. It could be a matter of identifying as a good language learner, or the degree to which language learning is made a priority in the student's life. Perriera et al. (2006) demonstrated how a student's cultural capital can also influence his or her own commitment to the learning process. Negative intrinsic agency comes from lack of self-confidence or commitment. Or, as Schwartzer's (2009) studies showed, some pedagogical approaches can be an obstacle, even to motivated learners, when instructors do not create inclusive environments.

### 3.3.6 Extrinsic Agency

Often the self-confidence needed to succeed comes from the student's support system. When the learning process is seen as a priority by others, it is less likely to be let go in favour of life's obstacles. Bodycott (2006) has shown the importance of learning being consistent with a student's role in their own community, and education being seen by others as a cultural value. Even so, negative extrinsic agency can occur at any moment. As seen with Warringer (2007), regardless of the student's level of motivation, family, work obligations or even logistic problems can unexpectedly derail any learning process.

The broad theories being explored by each motivational or agency category were embedded in the simple questions of the survey. Each question on the survey targeted one or more of the above categories. Some of the categories were targeted twice as a check. The questions were multiple choice, each response corresponding with a specific score (Tables 3 and 4). Factors were attributed to the categories with a score of 1, 0, or -1 with a maximum for each category of 1 and a minimum of -1.

## 3.4 SURVEY QUESTIONS

A sample of the survey questions and answer choices can be found in Appendix C. Each question is followed by the explicit goal of each question in parenthesis. These explanations did not appear on the working survey. At the end of each question on the working version was a blank space to provide more detail or clarification. While this study had no mechanism to analyze qualitative data, the blank spaces served to help the participant qualify his or her answer when in doubt.

### 3.4.1 Forming Profile Codes

The end-product of this process was a profile code for each participant. Using the data from the surveys, each motivational factor was tallied on the grid (Table 3) in

order to establish a profile code. This profile code became the standard unit of data from which all further analysis was made. Throughout the analysis, participants' names remained confidential, and were identified simply by their number within a group and their 7-digit profile code. A link was maintained with the participant's number and group until success data was linked to the profile code.

Table 3

Profile Code Sample

| Intrinsic Instrument | Intrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Instrument | Extrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Agency | Intrinsic Agency | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | -1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 |

This 7-digit motivational profile in Table 3 indicates at a glance that the participant has strong instrumental motivation, but little external support and no real personal investment in the learning process. It also indicates that while the participant had the opportunity and was held to expectations from others, there were outside factors out of the participant's control that may have hampered the process. The overall score of zero, indicates a neutral level of motivation.

### 3.4.2 Scoring

Table 4 represents the scoring grid used in scoring participant's responses to the survey. The top row represents each of the possible responses and the left column represents each of the questions in the survey. Each response provided a score of -1, 0, or +1 on each of the motivational factors. Appendix C is a sample of a completed form and its outcome. Each question is followed by one of the possible answers and an explanation for how that answer is scored according to the grid in Table 4.

The grid shows 4 possible responses (A-D) for each of the 7 questions in the survey. For example, if the participant answered "A" to question 1, then intrinsic

instrument (int/ins) received a score of +1 in the profile. If the participant answered "B" intrinsic investment (int/inv) received a score of +1 in the profile. These scores were tallied in the profile code for each participant as seen in Table 3 with a maximum score of +1 and a minimum score of -1 for each motivational factor.

Table 4

Survey Response Scores per Question

| | A | B | C | D |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | int/ins +1 | int/inv +1 | 0 | |
| 2 | ext/ins +1 ext/inv +1 | ext/ins +1 ext/inv -1 | ext/ins -1 ext/inv +1 | ext/ag -1 |
| 3 | Int/ins +1 | Int/inv +1 | ext/ag +1 | ext/ag -1 |
| 4 | Ext/inv -1 | Ext/ins -1 | Ext/ag +1 | Ext/ag -1 |
| 5 | Ext/Ag +1 Ext/inv -1 | Ext/ag +1 Ext/ins -1 | Ext/ag +1 | Ext/ag -1 |
| 6 | Int/ag +1 | 0 | Int/ag -1 | 0 |
| 7 | Ext/ag -1 | Ext/ag +1 | 0 | |

### 3.4.3 Population

The population of this sample was drawn from the participating students of six ESL groups at Dawson CTD. At an agreed-upon time arranged with the instructor, the researcher presented the study to the ESL group asking for participants to volunteer. Willing participants were given a consent form with a survey and enough time to complete it. Completed surveys were collected and the data from each was recorded to form a Profile Code for each student.

The survey did not collect data on the details of the instrumental motivation, nor why the participant was invested, nor which particular factor of agency that may have impeded the process, nor to what probability or extent. The goal of the process was to place the participant's motivational circumstances in relation to the broad theories described in the Contextual Framework. The resulting information was

enough to make statistical predictions and analyze collective data on motivational profile tendencies. This study analyzed the available data with two areas of focus:

1. Motivational profiles within a group.
2. Motivational profiles throughout groups.

Each motivational profile was connected to a participant, and each participant had either successfully completed the course, or had not. Results were calculated based on these two sets of data. This two-part process analyzed the relevance of the data in terms of how it related to the dynamics of a group, as well as how it related to individual profiles.

## 3.5 MOTIVATIONAL PROFILES

Once data had been collected from the surveys and transferred to profile codes (Pc), the data was ready for processing. Before success data was available, each group could be observed for its motivational components. The data was organized into the categories described in this section. Appendix A is a complete list of variables and their abbreviations as used in this study.

### 3.5.1 Motivational Profiles within a Group

Preliminary observations were made at an early stage in the process. Based solely on the Pc of each participant within a group, even before success data was received, important information about motivation could be assessed. A Motivational Type Score (Mts) could be calculated for each group by compiling the sum of all of the motivational types within a group. This data could then be applied to a graphic representation. High or low levels of each motivational and agency category within a group provided considerable insight into the data collected. The appearance of abundance or lack of certain categories could give an overview of the motivational nature of a group. These results are displayed in the analysis below.

In the first stage of analysis, each Pc was organized by group, to establish an overall Group Motivational Profile (GMP). Overall motivation levels from each group are the sum of all of the Profile Scores (Ps) in a group, divided by the number of participants in the group (N) to calculate the Group Motivational Average (GMA). The sum of all the agency scores in a group is the Group Agency Score (Gas). Dividing the Gas by N calculates the Group Agency Average (GAA). The GMA and the GAA represent the overall motivational level of each group. This formula was also used to calculate the Intrinsic Average (Ia), Extrinsic Average (Ea), Investment Average (InvA), and Instrumental Average (InsA). These averages, in addition to the GMA and GAA of each GMP, could already be observed before accessing success rates to determine tendencies in the motivational character of each group. (Acronyms are presented in Appendix A for referral.)

When data on student success became available at the end of the course, each participant was given a Success Nominator (Sn) of 1 to indicate successful completion of the course and -1 to indicate incomplete. The sum of all Sn within a group was the Success Score (Ss). Dividing Ss by N calculated the Group Success Average (GSA). This figure presented the overall success character of each group.

Each group had a motivational category that scored highest and lowest overall within the group called a positive and negative Group Trait (+Gt and –Gt). They were calculated by compiling each Pc in a group and tallying the scores for each motivational category. By ranking each group from highest to lowest GSA, and then observing the +Gt and –Gt of each group, it was possible to determine if any particular group trait could be linked to success.

The final step was to compare the GMA and the GSA for each group to see if there was any apparent connection between group motivation and success. The same process was performed for GAA of each group in comparison to its GSA, to determine any connection between agency and success.

### 3.5.2 Motivational Profiles throughout Groups

Once motivational data, agency data, and success data had been compiled, each participant was known simply by their 7-digit profile code (Pc) and their Success Nominator (Sn) indicating successful completion. The codes were then removed from their groups to be analyzed in relation to the complete set of data (N=56). Profile Codes were then placed in rank of their Profile Score (Ps). A Group Success Average (GSA) was calculated by grouping codes with similar Ps and dividing each group's Ss by N of each group. This determined a connection between motivational data and success data, and in turn demonstrated whether there were measurable tendencies between individual motivation and individual success.

The first step was to mark each Pc as successful or unsuccessful, then organize Pc of similar Ps into columns to form Profile Rank Groups (Prg). For each Prg (representing Ps ranking 0 through 4), a GMA was calculated by dividing the Gms of each Prg by N (GMA=Gms*N). A GSA was also calculated by taking the sum of all of the Sn in a Psg to find the Ss, then dividing the Ss by N. Comparisons were made between the GMAs of each Gms in relation to their GSA to see if there was any visible relation between motivational scores and success rates.

The next step involves relating each motivational factor to success. Each Pc was placed in columns according its score for each motivational category. Starting with intrinsic investment and so on, Pc were organized into three groups: Low (Int/Inv -1), Medium (Int/Inv 0), and High (Int/Inv +1). For each of these groups, a GSA was calculated by dividing the Ss by N. The same process was followed for each motivational and agency category. Comparisons were made between GSA of each group to determine any visible relation between High, Low and Medium scores for each motivational and agency category.

Results indicated the relation between data collected by this process and success rates. The researcher also observed if motivational factors exhibited certain discernible tendencies, or consistencies with results collected from other parts of the process. The results of these observations are detailed in the next chapter.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The following chapter details the results and findings of data collected from the process described in Chapter Three. From this point forward all participant data is in the form of 7-digit Profile Codes (Pc). Table 5 gives an overview of the raw data collected before organizing it into categories. Other information listed includes course level, proportion of course population participating, schedule type, date of the survey, and the teacher for each class.

Table 5

Data Collected from Surveys

| | Group 1 | Group 2 | Group 3 | Group 4 | Group 5 | Group 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Level | 5 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 5 |
| Participants/ class | 5/8 | 15/19 | 13/15 | 4/5 | 10/12 | 9/11 |
| Schedule | Mon/Wed | Intensive | Mon/Wed | Mon/Wed | Intensive | Intensive |
| Date of Survey | 15-Feb, 2017 | 1-March, 2017 | 1-March, 2017 | 1-March, 2017 | 10-May, 2017 | 25-May, 2017 |
| Teacher | A | B | D | E | F | G |
| Codes Collected | 1010002<br>100**1**011<br>11**1**0012<br>0000101<br>0100001 | 1101104<br>01**1**0002<br>0111102<br>0111104<br>000**1**111<br>1000102<br>01**1**0101<br>0011103<br>00**1**0100<br>01**1**1102<br>10**1**1102<br>0000112<br>000**1**100<br>01**1**0101<br>0011103 | 10**1**1002<br>000**1**100<br>01**11**100<br>10**1**1012<br>00**1**1012<br>1000113<br>0010**1**1<br>000**1**00**1**<br>0**1**11102<br>00**1**000**1**<br>0000**1**10<br>1001**1**01<br>10**1**1102 | 0110103<br>00**1**1101<br>01**1**1113<br>0011002 | 0100102<br>010**1**101<br>01**1**01**1**0<br>01**1**01**1**0<br>01**11**102<br>00**1**00**12**<br>10**1**0101<br>1001103<br>0011103<br>0010102 | 1011104<br>0011103<br>10**1**1113<br>00**1**01**11**<br>00**11**101<br>00**11**0**1**<br>1000**1**0<br>00**1**0100<br>0011103 |

The codes in Table 5 are presented in no particular order. Negative values in the code (score of -1) are represented on charts in bold. For example, *Pc : 0001100* represents the Pc breakdown in Table 6.

Table 6

Pc Breakdown

| Intrinsic Instrument | Intrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Instrument | Extrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Agency | Intrinsic Agency | *Ps* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | -1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

## 4.1 MOTIVATIONAL CATEGORIES

Before connecting motivation scores with success scores, some limited analysis was done on motivational profiles. Observing the motivational makeup of each group in the absence of success data revealed a great deal about the character of each group.

### 4.1.1 Observations Within Groups before Success Data

Table 7 displays compiled data of the motivation categories from all of the Pc of each group. Based on the data showing, even before considering success data, certain conclusions were drawn for each group and the types of motivation being brought to each group.

Table 7

Tally of all Motivational Categories within Groups

| Groups | Intrinsic Instrument | Intrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Instrument | Extrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Agency | Intrinsic Agency | Sum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | **3** | **2** | **0** | **-1** | **1** | **2** | **7** |
| **2** | **3** | **7** | **-2** | **4** | **15** | **2** | **29** |
| **3** | **4** | **0** | **-3** | **1** | **5** | **2** | **9** |
| **4** | **0** | **2** | **0** | **3** | **3** | **1** | **9** |
| **5** | **2** | **5** | **-3** | **2** | **9** | **-3** | **12** |
| **6** | **3** | **0** | **-2** | **6** | **6** | **-1** | **12** |
| **Average** | **2.5** | **2.7** | **-1.7** | **2.5** | **6.5** | **0.5** | **13** |

### 4.1.2 Motivational Categories by Group

Figure 1 displays a colour block representation of each of the motivational categories per group without factoring in agency. The colour blocks give a quick visual impression of the groups where similarities between groups can easily be observed. This representation also provided an easy impression of the motivational categories that were dominant, missing, and negative.

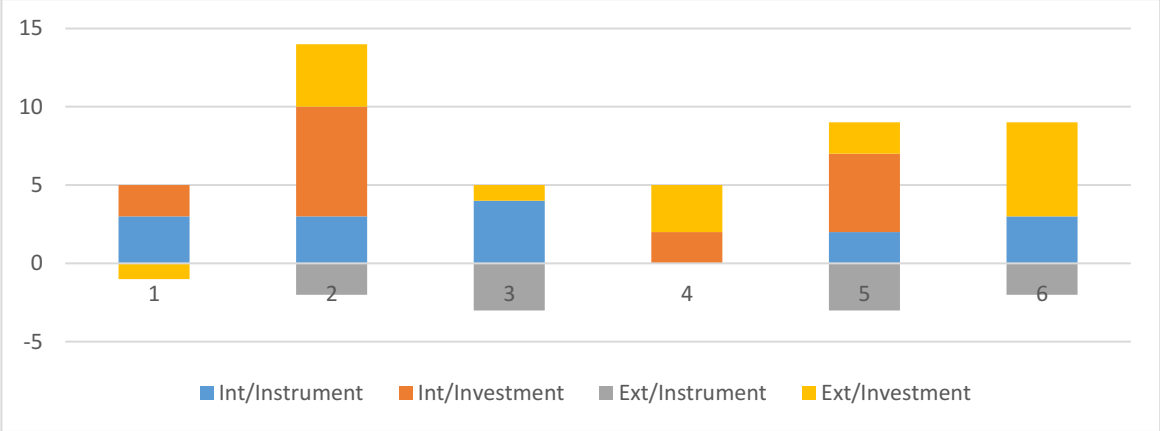


Figure 1 Overview of Group Motivation Categories by Group

With the data in Figure 1, it was apparent that Groups 2 and 5 had similar dynamics, as well as Groups 3 and 6. Group 1 stood out as having negative extrinsic investment while others had positive levels. Groups 3 and 6 were remarkable in having no intrinsic investment. All of the groups had low or negative extrinsic instrument. The high levels of intrinsic investment in Groups 2 and 5 indicated that these students were self-motivated to succeed. Meanwhile, the high levels of extrinsic investment and intrinsic instrument in Groups 3 and 6 indicated that these students were under extrinsic pressure to succeed. The low levels of extrinsic instrument throughout suggested an overall lack of opportunities to use the language.

### 4.1.3 Agency Categories

An overview of each group in terms of agency category gave an impression of their potential. Even before applying success data, certain observations could be

made. In this chart, they were also compared to class size. Figure 2 displays a colour block representation of each of the agency categories per group without taking into account motivation.

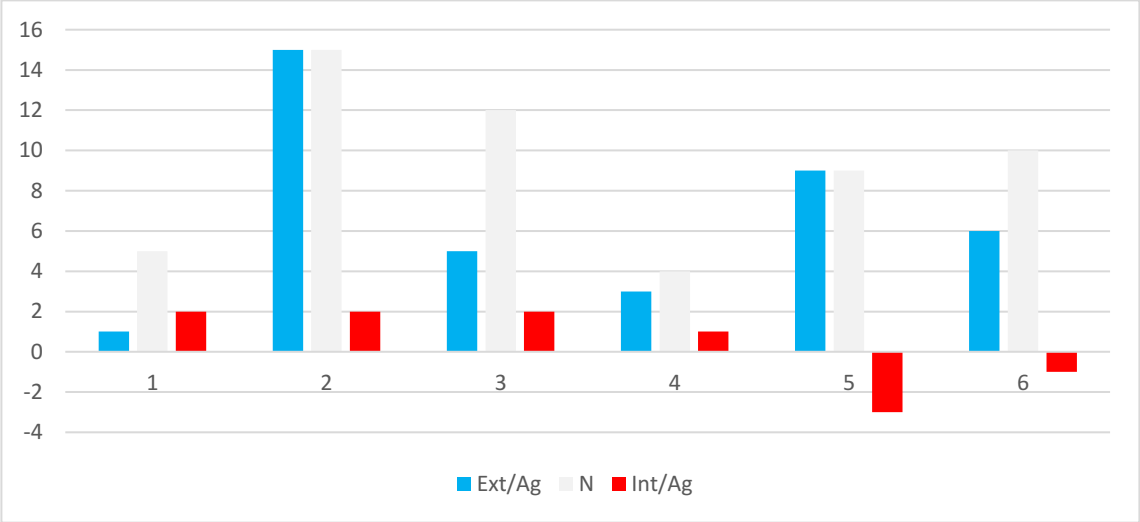


Figure 2 Factors of Agency per Group

From the information from Figure 2 alone, predictions could be made about the potential of a group's overall success. The negative intrinsic agency in Groups 5 and 6 suggested a higher possibility that these students would become frustrated and abandon the course. High levels of extrinsic agency in Groups 2, 4 and 5 indicated that students were strongly supported by their family, employer, and/or peers, reducing the possibility of their efforts being compromised.

### 4.1.4 Group Averages

In this process, a great deal could be known about a group by calculating its GMA and GAA. The GMA was calculated by dividing the Gms by N. The GAA was calculated by dividing the As by N. Figure 3 below gives an overview of the GMAs of each group, followed by the GAAs in Figure 4.

When data was presented by averages per group, results appeared quite similar. In the figures below, Groups 2 and 4 seemed to have strong showings in both motivation and agency. Groups 1, 5 and 6 showed more moderate results. Group 3 showed a consistently low overall score in both motivation and agency.

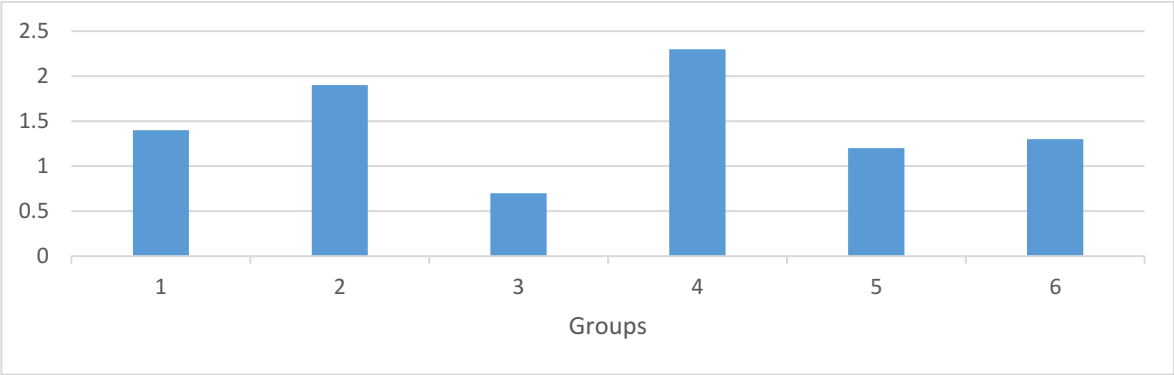


Figure 3 Group Motivational Averages

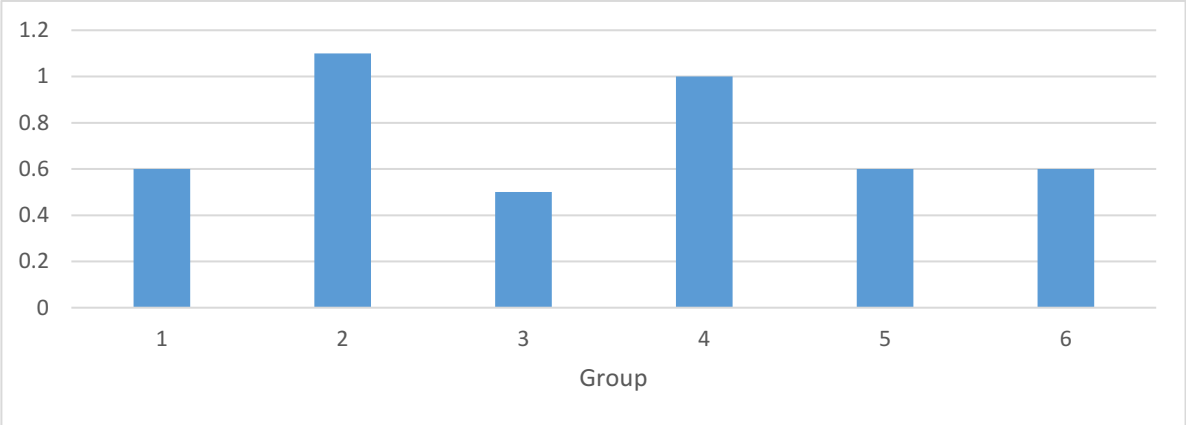


Figure 4 Group Agency Averages

Educators could use these graphics to make insightful predictions about the nature of the group. Regardless of tangible success rates, the motivational profiles of students and groups of students necessarily reflect the unique character of a language learning process. When this data was collected early in the course, a great deal could be known about the potential of the group, as well as its pedagogical needs.

## 4.2 SUCCESS RESULTS

Table 8 shows the complete data set for the six groups including success results. The Success Score (Ss) for each group was determined by the sum of each Ps within a group. The Group Success Average (GSA) was calculated by dividing the Ss of each group by N.

### 4.2.1 Comparing Motivation, Agency and Success within Groups

Figure 5 compares GMA and GAA to GSA. When comparing GMA and GSA, there did not appear at first to be any significant connection between group motivation and group success. High motivation averages did not seem to be consistent with high success rates.

Table 8

Overview of Results

| Line | | G1 | G2 | G3 | G4 | G5 | G6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | (N) | 5 | 15 | 13 | 4 | 10 | 9 |
| | | | | | | | |
| 2 | (+Gt): | Int/Inst | Int/Inv | Int/Inst | Ext/Inv | Int/Inv | Ext/Inv |
| 3 | (-Gt) | Ext/Inv | Ext/Inst | Ext/Inst | Int/Ext/Inst | Ext/Inst | Ext/Inst |
| 4 | (Is) | 5 | 10 | 4 | 2 | 7 | 3 |
| 5 | (Es) | -1 | 2 | -2 | 3 | -1 | 4 |
| 6 | (InvS) | 1 | 12 | 1 | 5 | 7 | 6 |
| 7 | (InsS) | 3 | 1 | -1 | 0 | -1 | 1 |
| 8 | (Ia) | 1 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.7 | 0.3 |
| 9 | (Ea) | -0.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.8 | -0.1 | 0.4 |
| 10 | (InvA) | 0.2 | 0.8 | 0.1 | 1.25 | 0.7 | 0.7 |
| 11 | (InsA) | 0.6 | 0.1 | -0.1 | 0 | -0.1 | 0.1 |
| 12 | (As) | 3 | 17 | 7 | 4 | 6 | 5 |
| 13 | (GAA) | 0.6 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 1 | 0.6 | 0.6 |
| 14 | (Gms) | 7 | 29 | 9 | 9 | 12 | 12 |
| 15 | (GMA) | 1.4 | 1.9 | 0.7 | 2.3 | 1.2 | 1.3 |
| | | | | | | | |
| 16 | (Ss) | 1 | 13 | 11 | 4 | 8 | 7 |
| 17 | (GSA) | 0.2 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 1 | 0.8 | 0.8 |

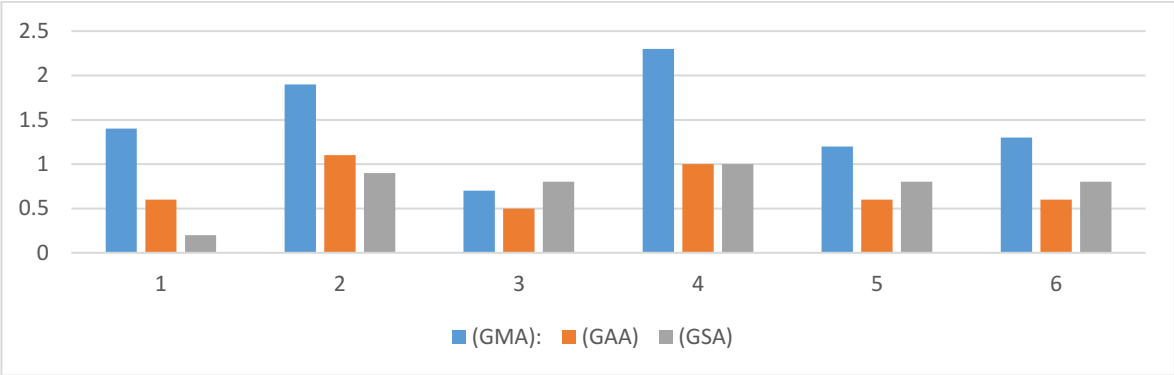


Figure 5 Visual Overview of Results

The comparison between GAA and GSA appearing in Figure 5 showed more promising results. High levels of agency seemed to indicate higher levels of success. Group 3, however, had the lowest agency level and one of the highest success rates. Groups 2 and 4 had the highest motivation levels, and the highest success levels. Group 1, however, had a high motivation level but a noticeably lower success level.

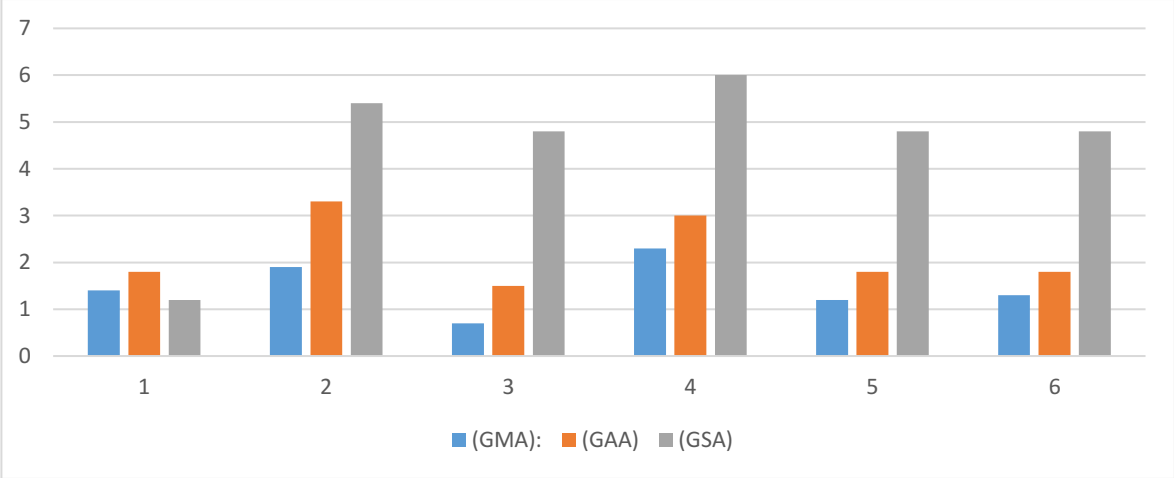


Figure 6 Results Adjusted to Common Scale

When the three data sets were compared on a similar scale, group success levels appeared to be driven far more by group agency levels than by group motivation levels. Group 1 was by far the least successful group. Groups 2 and 4 were the most successful. Groups 3, 5 and 6 showed moderate results. Using these values as a guide, the results could be compared to other collected data to confirm if individual motivational categories and factors had a noticeable influence on success.

### 4.2.2 Comparing Prevalent Group Traits

In Table 9, groups were ranked high, medium and low based on their GMA. Groups 4 and 2 had equally high GMA, followed by groups 3, 5 and 6. Group 1 distinguished itself as scoring particularly low in comparison to the other groups. Next to each group was the most prevalent (highest and lowest overall scoring) motivational categories in each group.

Table 9

Overview of Group Traits

| **Groups Ranked** | **Prevalent Positive Category** | **Prevalent Negative Category** |
|---|---|---|
| **High Success** | | |
| Group 4 | Extrinsic Investment | Intrinsic and extrinsic Instrument |
| Group 2 | Intrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Instrument |
| **Medium success** | | |
| Group 3 | Intrinsic Instrument | Extrinsic Instrument |
| Group 5 | Intrinsic investment | Extrinsic Instrument |
| Group 6 | Extrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Instrument |
| **Low success** | | |
| Group 1 | Intrinsic Instrument | Extrinsic Investment |

The results showed that more successful groups had high investment, while the least successful group had investment as its lowest score. It did not seem to matter whether the investment was intrinsic or extrinsic. It did, however, seem to matter for instrument. Low extrinsic instrument appeared to be consistent with success. The 5 highest scoring groups had instrument as their lowest factor, while the lowest scoring group had it as its primary motivation.

Exploring the accuracy and relevance of these findings required a closer look at each of the factors of motivation and agency individually. The next stage in the

process involved observing the relation to tangible success rates and motivational factor scores.

### 4.2.3 Motivational Factors in Relation to Success

The next section refers to the data compiled on lines 4 to 12 of Table 8. Lines 4 to 7 show the individual motivational factor scores drawn from each Pc in a group. Those scores were divided by N of each group to produce an average for each motivational factor: Intrinsic average (Ia), Extrinsic average (Ea), Investment average (InvA), Instrumental average (InstA). Comparing these averages of each group to its GSA gave a visual impression of what tendencies these factors of motivation had in relation to data on success. Figures 7 to 10 show a comparison of success rates for each individual factor of motivation with observations.

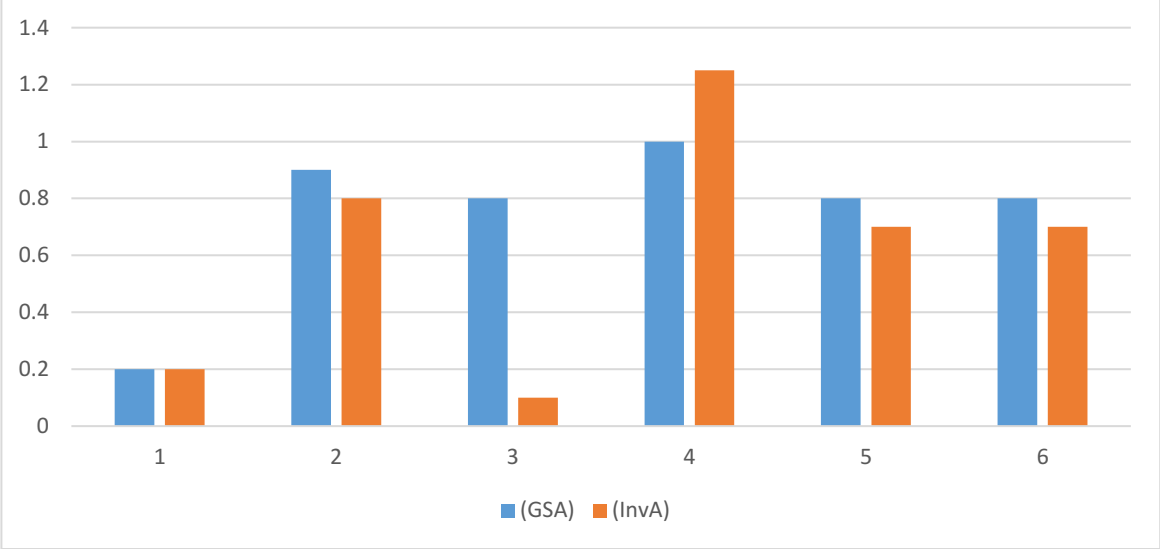


Figure 7 Investment Averages and GSA

Figure 7 demonstrates the relation between investment scores and the overall success rate within a group. With the exception of Group 3, higher levels seemed to correspond with higher success. Groups 2, 5 and 6 showed a consistency between investment and success. Group 1, scoring low on both counts, seemed to indicate a connection between low investment and low success.

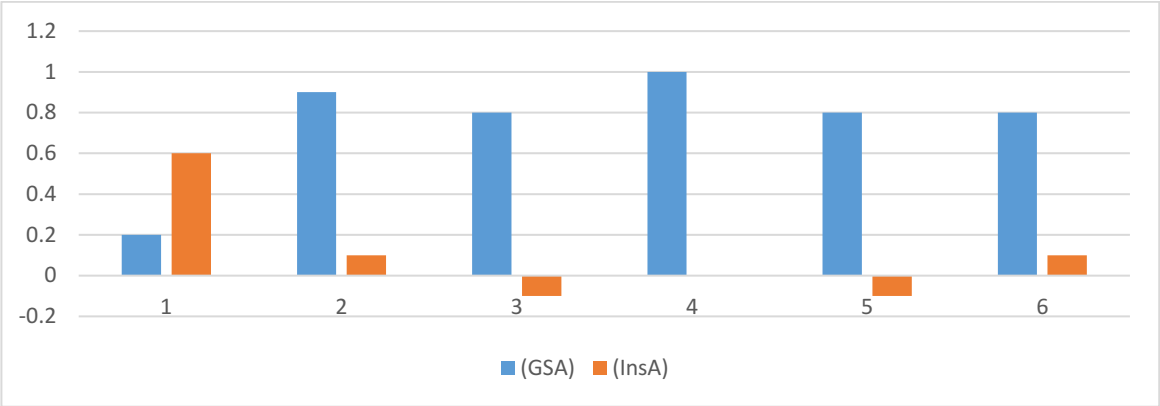


Figure 8 Instrumental Averages and GSA

Unlike the data collected on the motivational factors, Figure 8 indicated an inverse reaction. Group 1 showed higher instrument corresponding with a lower level of success. Conversely, lower or negative instrument scores seemed to correspond with higher levels of success.

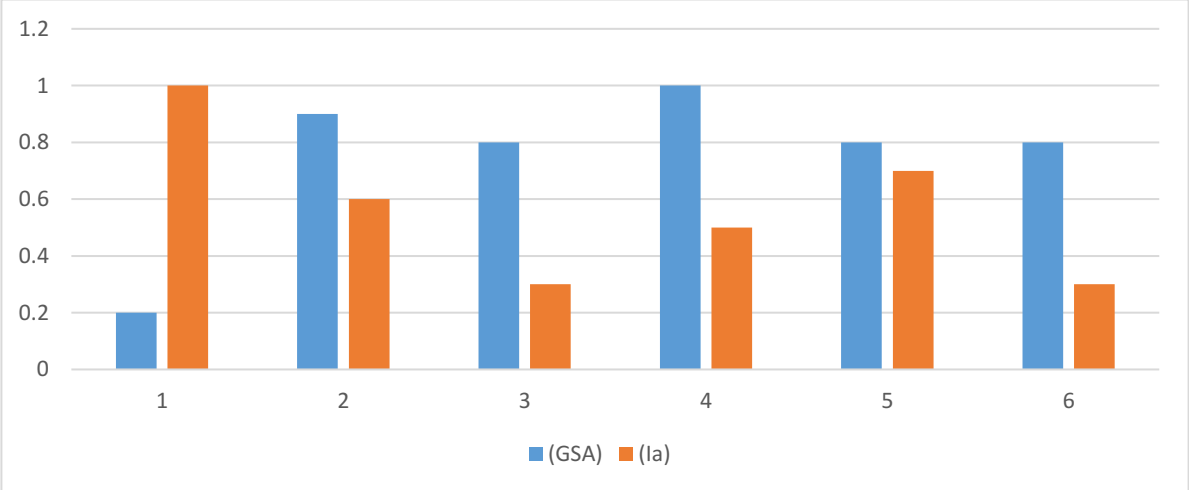


Figure 9 Intrinsic Averages and GSA

In Figure 9, Group 1 had by far the highest intrinsic levels, yet showed the lowest success. There did not appear to be any connection, since no other groups showed any sign of intrinsic levels corresponding to consistent results.

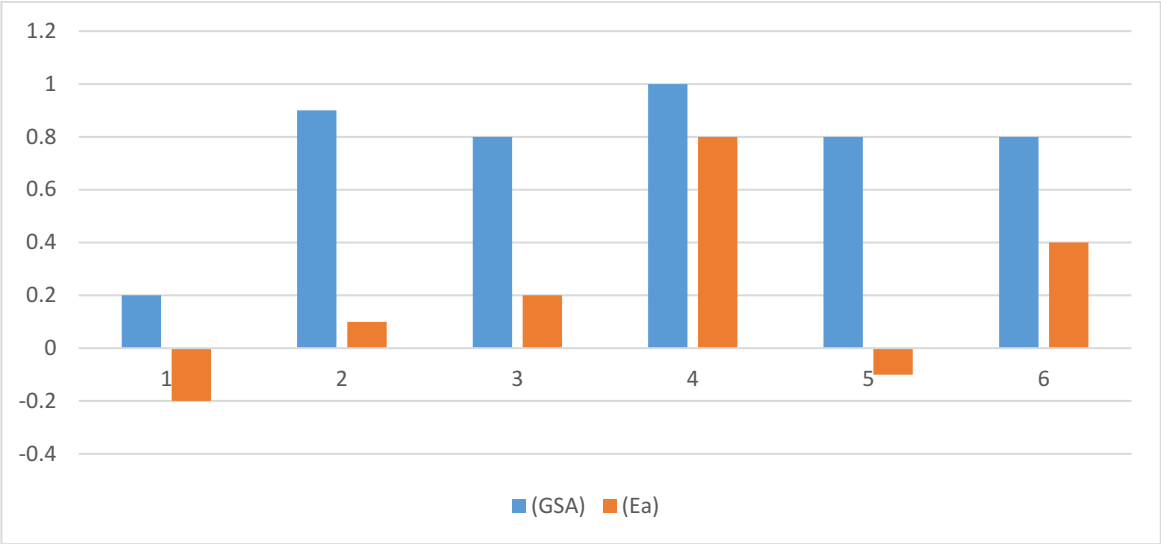


Figure 10 Extrinsic Averages and GSA

In Figure 10, Group 1 had the lowest success score and the lowest extrinsic score. Similarly, Group 4 had the highest extrinsic score and the highest success. Groups 2, 3, 5 and 6 however showed success to be consistent with low extrinsic scores.

The results of individual examination of motivational factors seemed to confirm some of the evidence presented in the analysis of group traits. When observing specific motivational factors, successful groups tended to be highly invested either intrinsically or extrinsically. High levels of success also seemed to be linked to a low extrinsic instrument. Also, from the comparisons between motivational averages, agency averages and overall success averages, there was also strong evidence to support the notion that, in general, agency had a deeper influence over success outcomes than motivation. The next stage of the process, where profile codes were examined outside of their group context, it could be seen if these patterns were consistent.

### 4.2.4 Comparing Motivation, Agency and Success throughout Groups

At this stage of analysis, groups were dissolved and the population was determined as N=56. In Table 11, each Pc was organized into a Profile Success

Group (Psg) according to its Profile Score (Ps). From this stage each Pc is presented out of the context of its original group. A Pc that is underlined represents an unsuccessful participant. Bold digits represent negative values. For example, Pc : 000**1**100 represents the profile code in Table 10.

Table 10

Profile Code Sample

| Intrinsic Instrument | Intrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Instrument | Extrinsic Investment | Extrinsic Agency | Intrinsic Agency | Ps |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | -1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 11 shows the profile codes sorted by their Ps. Since the number of codes scoring Ps=1 and Ps=2 was higher than the others, each Psg was given a GSA. The GSA for each group was calculated by dividing the number of successful profiles per Psg, divided by N for each group. The results of this calculation are in Table 12.

Table 11

Profiles Sorted by Ps Rank

| N | Ps=0 | Ps=1 | Ps=2 | Ps=3 | Ps=4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 000**1**100 | 10**1**0101 | 11**1**0012 | 10**1**1113 | 0111104 |
| 2 | 000**1**100 | 1001**1**01 | 1010002 | 1001103 | 1011104 |
| 3 | 0000**1**10 | 100**1**011 | 1000102 | 0011103 | 1101104 |
| 4 | 01**11**100 | 010**1**101 | 10**1**1102 | 1000113 | |
| 5 | 01**1**01**1**0 | 0000101 | 10**1**1102 | 0011103 | |
| 6 | 01**1**01**1**0 | 000**1**00**1** | 10**1**1002 | 0011103 | |
| 7 | 00**1**0100 | 0010**1**1 | 10**1**1012 | 0011103 | |
| 8 | 1000**1**0 | 00**1**000**1** | 0000112 | 0110103 | |
| 9 | | 00**1**1101 | 00**1**1012 | 01**1**1113 | |
| 10 | | 00**1**01**1** | 0011002 | | |
| 11 | | 00**1**1101 | 00**1**00**12** | | |
| 12 | | 000**1**111 | 0010102 | | |
| 13 | | 00**1**1**1**01 | 01**1**0002 | | |
| 14 | | 0100001 | 011**1**102 | | |
| 15 | | 01**1**0101 | 01**1**1102 | | |
| 16 | | 01**1**0101 | 0**1**111102 | | |
| 17 | | | 0100102 | | |
| 18 | | | 01**1**1102 | | |

Table 12

GSA per Psg Rank

| Profile Score (Ps) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Group Size (N) | 8 | 16 | 18 | 9 | 3 |
| Success Score (Ss) | 7 | 15 | 16 | 8 | 2 |
| GSA | 0.88 | 0.94 | 0.89 | 0.89 | 0.67 |

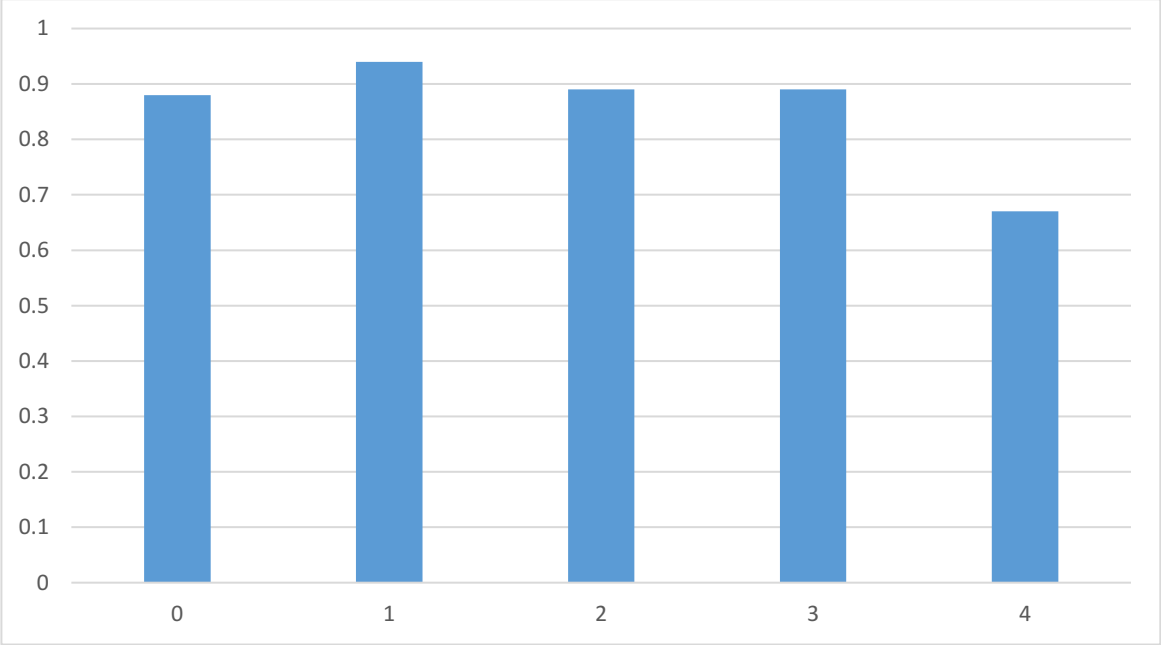


Figure 11 GSA per Psg Rank

Figure 11 does not seem to indicate any connection between Ps and GSA. Profile Success Groups with higher Ps did not indicate higher GSA. In fact, the highest GSA represented the lowest Psg score. The inconsistency of this data may have been due to the constraints of the sample size and the wide range in data from group to group.

### 4.2.5 Profiles Organized by Intrinsic Instrument Score

In Table 13, all 56 profiles are ranked by their intrinsic instrument score of 1, 0, or -1 as indicated by the first digit in the code. In Table 14 an overview of GSA for each group is followed by a graphic representation of the data in Figure 12, followed by observations on the relation between GSA and intrinsic instrument ranking.

Table 13

Profiles Sorted by Intrinsic Instrument Score

| N | Int/Ins = 1 | Int/Ins = 0 | Int/Ins = -1 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1000010 | 0101101 | |
| 2 | 1010101 | 0000101 | |
| 3 | 1001101 | 0001001 | |
| 4 | 1001011 | 0010111 | |
| 5 | 1110012 | 0010001 | |
| 6 | 1010002 | 0011101 | |
| 7 | 1000102 | 0010111 | |
| 8 | 1011102 | 0011101 | |
| 9 | 1011102 | 0001111 | |
| 10 | 1011002 | 0011101 | |
| 11 | 1011012 | 0100001 | |
| 12 | 1011113 | 0110101 | |
| 13 | 1001103 | 0110101 | |
| 14 | 1000113 | 0001100 | |
| 15 | 1011104 | 0001100 | |
| 16 | 1101104 | 0000110 | |
| 17 | | 0111100 | |
| 18 | | 0110110 | |
| 19 | | 0110110 | |
| 20 | | 0010100 | |
| 21 | | 0000112 | |
| 22 | | 0011012 | |
| 23 | | 0011002 | |
| 24 | | 0010012 | |
| 25 | | 0010102 | |
| 26 | | 0110002 | |
| 27 | | 0111102 | |
| 28 | | 0111102 | |
| 29 | | 0111102 | |
| 30 | | 0100102 | |
| 31 | | 0111102 | |
| 32 | | 0111104 | |
| 33 | | 0011103 | |
| 34 | | 0011103 | |
| 35 | | 0011103 | |
| 36 | | 0011103 | |
| 37 | | 0110103 | |
| 38 | | 0111113 | |

Table 14

GSA per Intrinsic Instrument Rank

| | High intrinsic instrument | Medium Intrinsic Instrument | Low intrinsic Instrument |
|---|---|---|---|
| N | 16 | 38 | 0 |
| Ss | 12 | 36 | 0 |
| GSA | 0.75 | 0.94 | 0 |

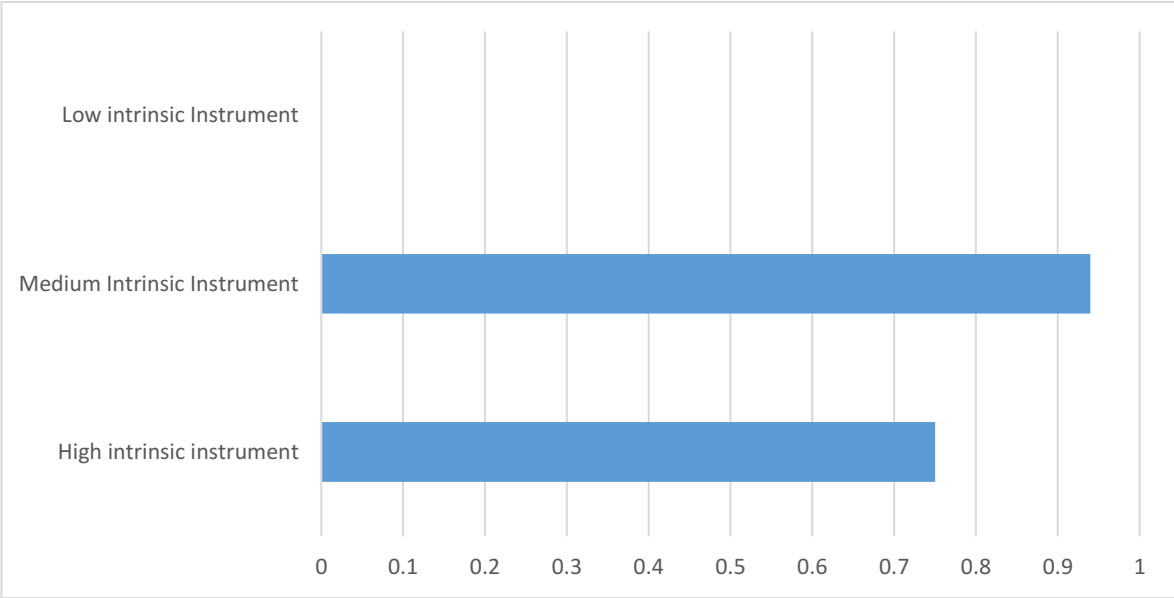


Figure 12 GSA per Intrinsic Instrument Rank

Data shows slightly higher success for lower intrinsic instrument. This is consistent with findings when comparing prevalent group traits and when comparing motivational factors within groups. However, since there was no data for low intrinsic instrument, no reliable conclusion could be made.

### 4.2.6 Profiles Organized by Intrinsic Investment Score

In Table 15, all 56 profiles are ranked by their intrinsic investment score. Each profile has an intrinsic investment score of 1, 0, or -1 as indicated by the second digit in the code. In Table 16 an overview of GSA for each group is followed by a

graphic representation of the data in Figure 13, followed by observations on the relation between GSA and Intrinsic Investment ranking.

Table 15

Profiles Sorted by Intrinsic Investment Score

| N | Int/Ins = 1 | Int/Ins = 0 | Int/Ins = -1 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1000**1**0 | 0000101 | 0**1**111102 |
| 2 | 10**1**0101 | 000**1**00**1** | |
| 3 | 1001**1**01 | 0010**1**1 | |
| 4 | 100**1**011 | 00**1**000**1** | |
| 5 | 11**1**0012 | 00**1**1101 | |
| 6 | 1000**1**0 | 00**1**0**11** | |
| 7 | 11**1**0012 | 00**1**1101 | |
| 8 | 1101104 | 000**1**111 | |
| 9 | 010**1**101 | 00**1**1**01** | |
| 10 | 0100001 | 000**1**100 | |
| 11 | 01**1**0101 | 000**1**100 | |
| 12 | 01**1**0101 | 0000**1**10 | |
| 13 | 01**11**100 | 00**1**0100 | |
| 14 | 01**1**01**1**0 | 0000112 | |
| 15 | 01**1**01**1**0 | 00**1**1012 | |
| 16 | 01**1**0002 | 0011002 | |
| 17 | 011**1**102 | 00**1**00**12** | |
| 18 | 01**1**1102 | 0010102 | |
| 19 | 0100102 | 0011103 | |
| 20 | 01**1**1102 | 0011103 | |
| 21 | 0111104 | 0011103 | |
| 22 | 0110103 | 0011103 | |
| 23 | 01**1**1113 | 1010002 | |
| 24 | | 1000102 | |
| 25 | | 10**1**1102 | |
| 26 | | 10**1**1102 | |
| 27 | | 10**1**1002 | |
| 28 | | 10**1**1012 | |
| 29 | | 10**1**1113 | |
| 30 | | 1001103 | |
| 31 | | 1000113 | |
| 32 | | 1011104 | |
| 33 | | 10**1**0101 | |
| 34 | | 1001**1**01 | |
| 35 | | 100**1**011 | |

Table 16

GSA per Intrinsic Investment Rank

| | High intrinsic investment | Medium Intrinsic investment | Low intrinsic investment |
|---|---|---|---|
| N | 18 | 35 | 1 |
| Ss | 15 | 32 | 1 |
| GSA | 0.83 | 0.91 | Not enough data |

The data showed slightly higher success for medium intrinsic investment. This is not consistent with comparisons of prevalent group traits, and when comparing motivational factors within groups, where intrinsic investment was shown to be indicative of higher success. Since there was little showing for low intrinsic investment no reliable conclusion could be made.

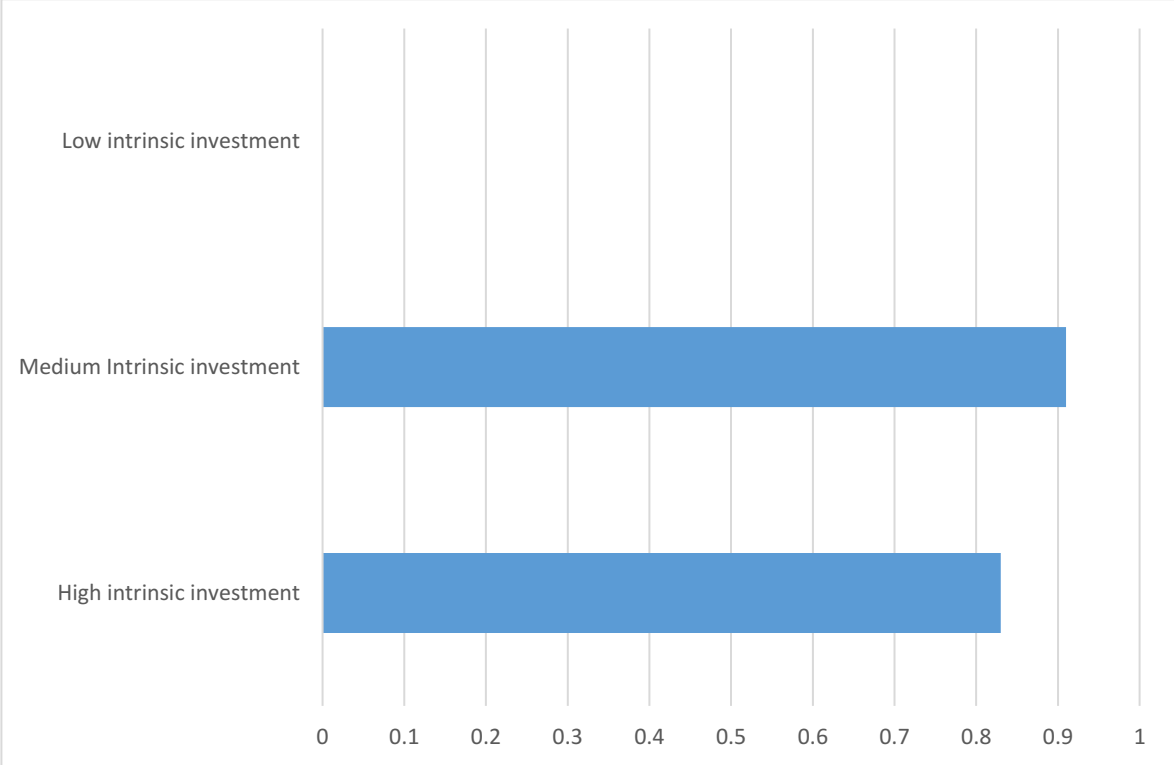


Figure 13 GSA per Intrinsic Investment Rank

### 4.2.7 Profiles Organized by Extrinsic Instrument Score

In Table 17, all 56 profiles are ranked by their extrinsic instrument score. Each profile has an extrinsic instrument score of 1, 0, or -1 as indicated by the third digit in the code. In Table 18 an overview of GSA for each group is followed by a graphic representation of the data in Figure 14, followed by observations on the relation between GSA and Extrinsic Instrument ranking.

Table 17

Profiles Sorted by Extrinsic Instrument Score

| N | Ex/Ins = 1 | Ex/Ins = 0 | Ex/Ins = -1 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0111102 | 0000101 | 1110012 |
| 2 | 0111104 | 0001001 | 0110101 |
| 3 | 0110103 | 0001111 | 0110101 |
| 4 | 0111102 | 0001100 | 0111100 |
| 5 | 0010111 | 0001100 | 0110110 |
| 6 | 0011103 | 0000110 | 0110110 |
| 7 | 0011103 | 0000112 | 0110002 |
| 8 | 0011103 | 1000102 | 0111102 |
| 9 | 0011103 | 1001103 | 0111102 |
| 10 | 0010102 | 1000113 | 0111113 |
| 11 | 1010002 | 1001101 | 0010001 |
| 12 | 1011104 | 1001011 | 0011101 |
| 13 | 0011002 | 1000010 | 0010111 |
| 14 | | 0100001 | 0011101 |
| 15 | | 0100102 | 0011101 |
| 16 | | 1101104 | 0010100 |
| 17 | | 0101101 | 0011012 |
| 18 | | | 0010012 |
| 19 | | | 1011102 |
| 20 | | | 1011102 |
| 21 | | | 1011002 |
| 22 | | | 1011012 |
| 23 | | | 1011113 |
| 24 | | | 1010101 |

Table 18

GSA per Extrinsic Instrument Rank

| | High extrinsic instrument | Medium extrinsic Instrument | Low extrinsic Instrument |
|---|---|---|---|
| N | 13 | 17 | 24 |
| Ss | 11 | 15 | 22 |
| GSA | 0.84 | 0.88 | 0.91 |

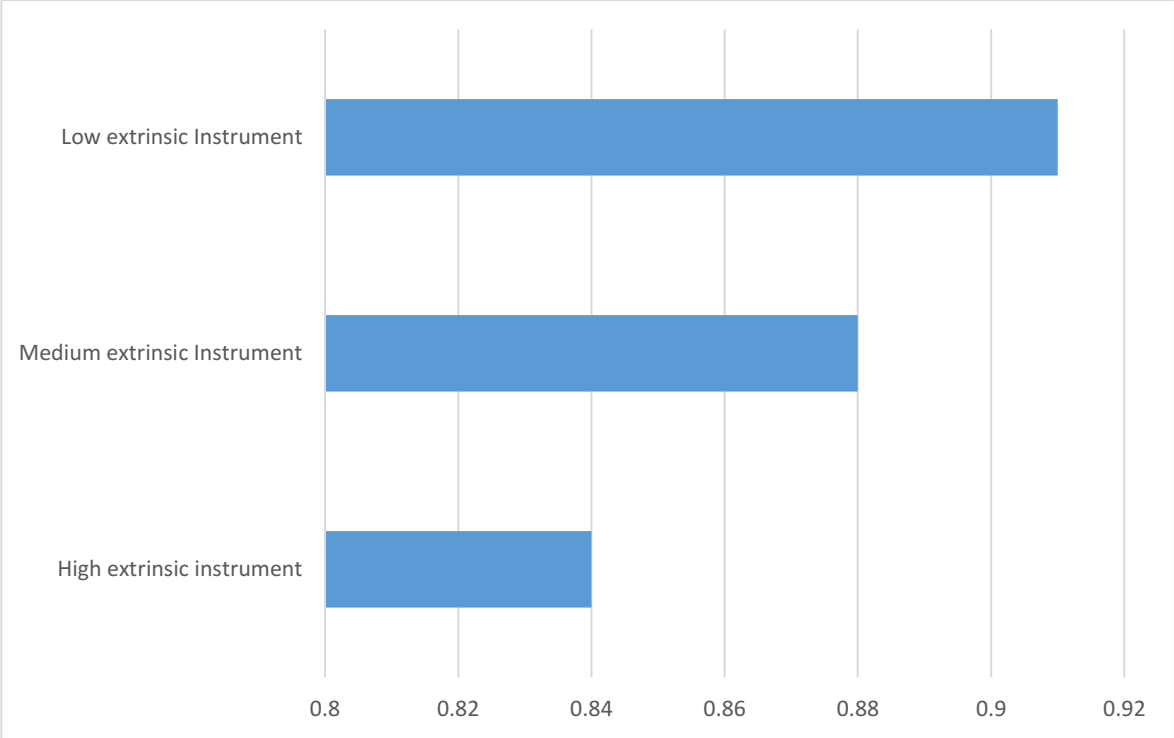


Figure 14 GSA per Extrinsic Instrument Rank

Data shows higher success for lower intrinsic instrument. This is consistent with intrinsic instrument results and findings from comparing prevalent group traits and when comparing motivational factors within groups. Since there was a large sample of data for low extrinsic instrument, the evidence for a connection between extrinsic instrument and success is noteworthy.

### 4.2.8 Profiles Organized by Extrinsic Investment Score

In Table 19, all 56 profiles are ranked by their extrinsic investment score. Each profile has an extrinsic investment score of 1, 0, or -1 as indicated by the fourth digit in the code. In Table 20 an overview of GSA for each group is followed by a graphic representation of the data in Figure 15, followed by observations on the relation between GSA and extrinsic investment ranking.

Table 19

Profiles Sorted by Extrinsic Investment Score

| N | Ex/Inv = 1 | Ex/Inv = 0 | Ex/Inv = -1 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0111104 | 0000101 | 0111102 |
| 2 | 0**1**11102 | 0000**1**10 | 0001001 |
| 3 | 0011103 | 0000112 | 0001111 |
| 4 | 0011103 | 1000102 | 0001100 |
| 5 | 0011103 | 1000113 | 0001100 |
| 6 | 0011103 | 1000010 | 1001011 |
| 7 | 1011104 | 0100001 | 0101101 |
| 8 | 0011002 | 0100102 | 0111100 |
| 9 | 1001103 | 0110103 | |
| 10 | 1001101 | 0010111 | |
| 11 | 1101104 | 0010102 | |
| 12 | 0111102 | 1010002 | |
| 13 | 0111102 | 1110012 | |
| 14 | 0111113 | 0110101 | |
| 15 | 0011101 | 0110101 | |
| 16 | 0011101 | 0110110 | |
| 17 | 0011101 | 0110110 | |
| 18 | 0011012 | 0110002 | |
| 19 | 1011102 | 0010001 | |
| 20 | 1011102 | 0010111 | |
| 21 | 1011002 | 0010100 | |
| 22 | 1011012 | 0010012 | |
| 23 | 1011113 | 1010101 | |

Table 20

GSA per Extrinsic Investment Rank

| | High ext inv. | Medium ext inv. | Low ext inv. |
|---|---|---|---|
| N | 23 | 23 | 8 |
| Ss | 20 | 21 | 7 |
| GSA | 0.86 | 0.91 | 0.87 |

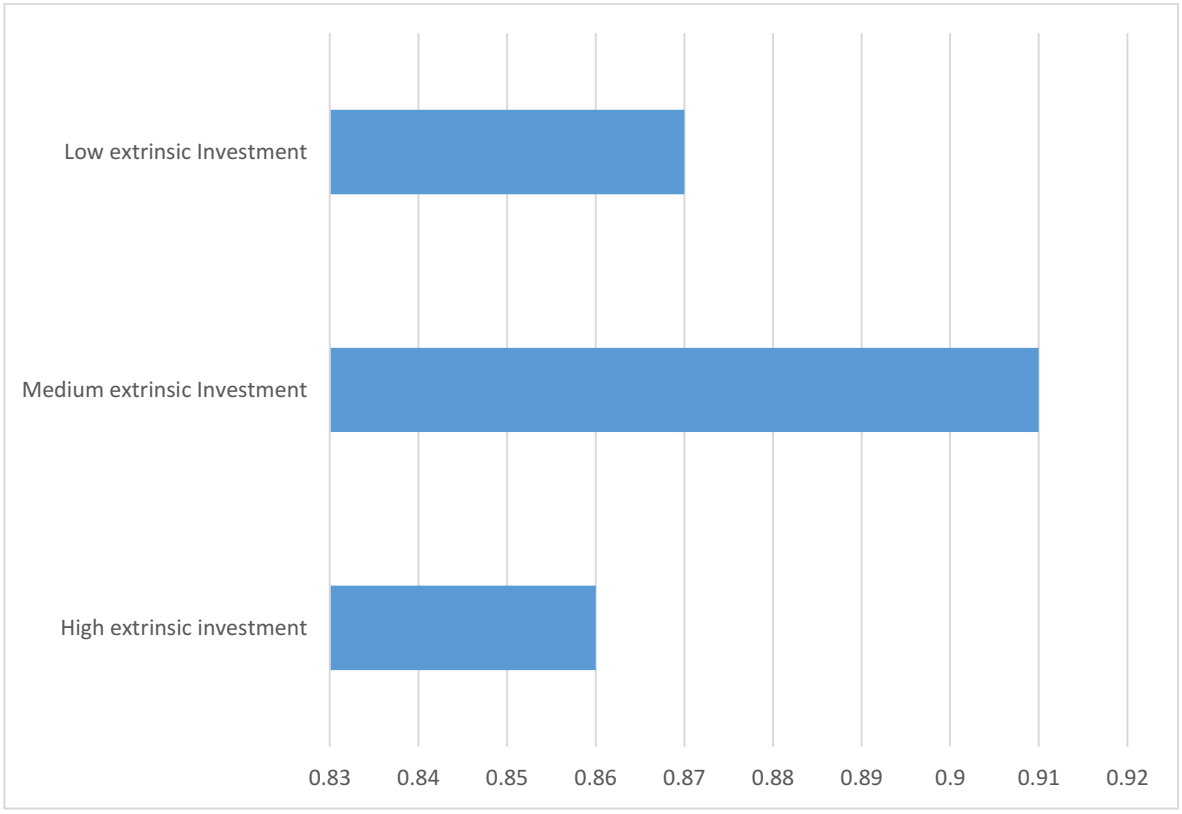


Figure 15 GSA per Extrinsic Investment Rank

Data shows a substantially higher success for medium extrinsic investment. This is not consistent with results from comparing prevalent group traits and when comparing motivational factors within groups. Since there was a small sample of data for low extrinsic investment, the evidence for a connection between extrinsic investment and success is questionable.

### 4.2.9 Profiles Organized by Extrinsic Agency Score

In Table 21, all 56 profiles are ranked by their extrinsic agency score. Each profile has an extrinsic agency score of 1, 0, or -1 as indicated by the fifth digit in the code. In Table 22 an overview of GSA for each rank group is followed by a graphic representation of the data in Figure 16, followed by observations on the relation between GSA and extrinsic agency ranking.

Table 21

Profiles Sorted by Extrinsic Agency Score

| N | Ex/Ag = 1 | Ex/Ag = 0 | Ex/Ag = -1 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0111104 | 100001**0** | 1001**1**01 |
| 2 | 0**1**11102 | 0100001 | 00**11101** |
| 3 | 0011103 | 1010002 | 0000**1**10 |
| 4 | 0011103 | 11**1**0012 | |
| 5 | 0011103 | 01**1**0002 | |
| 6 | 0011103 | 00**1**000**1** | |
| 7 | 1011104 | 00**1**00**12** | |
| 8 | 1001103 | 0011002 | |
| 9 | 1101104 | 00**1**1012 | |
| 10 | 01**1**1102 | 10**1**1002 | |
| 11 | 01**1**1102 | 10**1**1012 | |
| 12 | 01**1**1113 | 100**1**011 | |
| 13 | 00**1**1101 | 000**1**00**1** | |
| 14 | 10**1**0101 | | |
| 15 | 00**1**1101 | | |
| 16 | 000**1**111 | | |
| 17 | 011**1**102 | | |
| 18 | 000**1**100 | | |
| 19 | 000**1**100 | | |
| 20 | 10**1**1102 | | |
| 21 | 10**1**1102 | | |
| 22 | 10**1**1113 | | |
| 23 | 0000101 | | |
| 24 | 0000112 | | |
| 25 | 1000102 | | |
| 26 | 1000113 | | |
| 27 | 0100102 | | |
| 28 | 010**1**101 | | |
| 29 | 01**11**100 | | |
| 30 | 0110103 | | |
| 31 | 0010**1**1 | | |
| 32 | 0010102 | | |
| 33 | 01**1**0101 | | |
| 34 | 01**1**0101 | | |
| 35 | 01**1**01**1**0 | | |
| 36 | 00**1**01**11** | | |
| 37 | 00**1**0100 | | |
| 38 | 01**1**01**1**0 | | |

Table 22

GSA per Extrinsic Agency Rank

| | High extrinsic agency | Medium extrinsic agency | Low extrinsic agency |
|---|---|---|---|
| N | 38 | 13 | 3 |
| Ss | 36 | 9 | 3 |
| GSA | 0.95 | 0.69 | Not enough data |

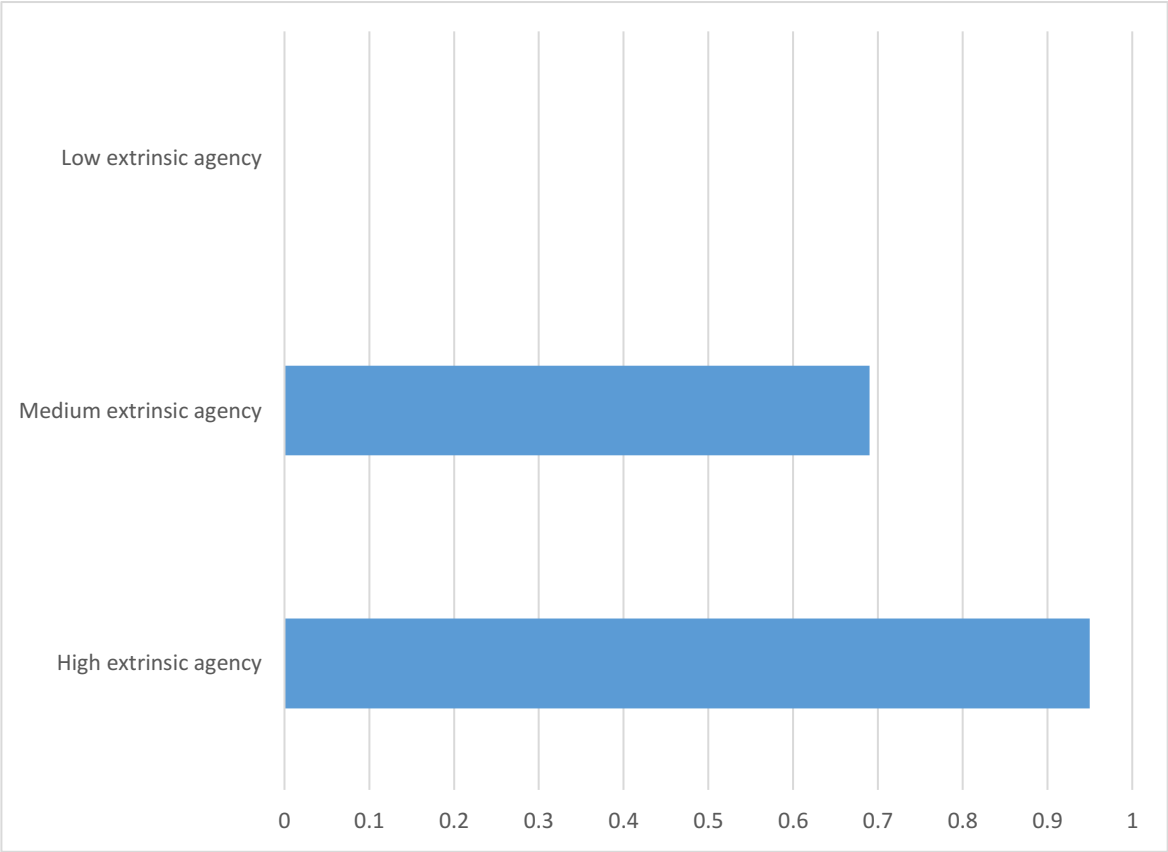


Figure 16 GSA per Extrinsic Agency Rank

Data shows a substantially higher success for higher extrinsic agency. This is consistent with results seen when comparing GAA to GSA in groups. However, since there was such a small sample of data for low extrinsic agency (N=3), the evidence for a connection between extrinsic agency and success remains questionable.

### 4.2.10 Profiles Organized by Intrinsic Agency Score

In Table 23, all 56 profiles are ranked by their intrinsic agency score. Each profile has an intrinsic agency score of 1, 0, or -1 as indicated by the sixth digit in the code. In Table 24 an overview of GSA for each rank group is followed by a graphic representation of the data in Figure 17, followed by observations on the relation between GSA and Intrinsic Agency ranking.

Table 23

Profiles Sorted by Intrinsic Agency Score

| N | Int/Ag = 1 | Int/Ag = 0 | Int/Ag = -1 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 01**1**1113 | 0100001 | 0010**1**1 |
| 2 | 000**1**111 | 1010002 | 01**1**0**1**0 |
| 3 | 10**1**1113 | 01**1**0002 | 00**1**0**1**1 |
| 4 | 0000112 | 00**1**000**1** | 1000**1**0 |
| 5 | 1000113 | 0000101 | 00**1**00**2** |
| 6 | 0000**1**10 | 1001**1**01 | 01**1**0**1**0 |
| 7 | 11**1**0012 | 00**1**1**1**0**1** | |
| 8 | 00**1**1012 | 011**1**102 | |
| 9 | 10**1**1012 | 0100102 | |
| 10 | 100**1**011 | 010**1**101 | |
| 11 | | 00**1**0100 | |
| 12 | | 0010102 | |
| 13 | | 01**1**0101 | |
| 14 | | 01**1**0101 | |
| 15 | | 01**1**1100 | |
| 16 | | 0110103 | |
| 17 | | 1000102 | |
| 18 | | 000**1**100 | |
| 19 | | 000**1**100 | |
| 20 | | 10**1**1102 | |
| 21 | | 10**1**1102 | |
| 22 | | 0011002 | |
| 23 | | 10**1**1002 | |
| 24 | | 000**1**00**1** | |
| 25 | | 0111104 | |
| 26 | | 0**1**11102 | |
| 27 | | 0011103 | |
| 28 | | 0011103 | |
| 29 | | 0011103 | |
| 30 | | 0011103 | |
| 31 | | 1011104 | |
| 32 | | 1001103 | |
| 33 | | 1101104 | |
| 34 | | 00**1**1101 | |
| 35 | | 10**1**0101 | |
| 36 | | 00**1**1101 | |
| 37 | | 01**1**1102 | |
| 38 | | 01**1**1102 | |

Table 24

GSA per Intrinsic Agency Rank

| | High intrinsic agency | Medium intrinsic agency | Low intrinsic agency |
|---|---|---|---|
| N | 10 | 38 | 6 |
| Ss | 8 | 35 | 5 |
| GSA | 0.80 | 0.97 | 0.83 |

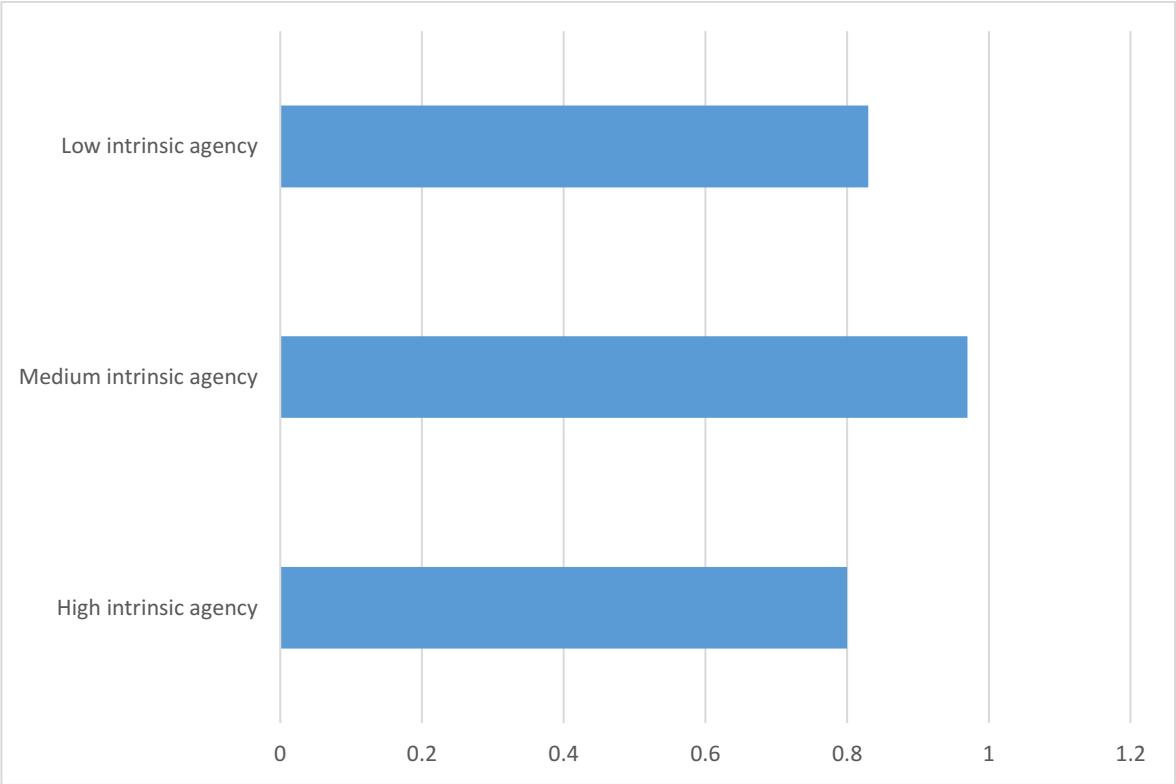


Figure 17 GSA per Intrinsic Agency Rank

Data shows even success rates throughout intrinsic agency profiles. There was also a significant difference in sample sizes for each group, Medium Intrinsic Agency having 38, Low Intrinsic Agency having only 6 and High Intrinsic Agency having 10. There were no significant observations to be made from this data.

## 4.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Much of the data presented as findings tended to be inconsistent or incomplete. When first analysing data within groups (students within a course), there was no noticeable connection between overall motivation scores and success rates with the data available. However, with further examination, overall agency levels showed a significant consistency with success levels. Groups with low agency scores tended to have lower levels of success.

When the individual motivational factors and categories were broken down within groups certain results stood out. Analysis of prevalent group traits revealed that investment (a desire to integrate into the culture of English) in both intrinsic (in service of oneself) and extrinsic (in service of others) forms was consistent with success. The lowest scoring group also had a low score in investment.

Instrument (a practical need to learn English) in both extrinsic and intrinsic forms, also had an effect on success. The most successful groups all had extrinsic instrument as their lowest scoring category, while the lowest scoring group had it as its highest scoring category. These results were later confirmed by comparing individual motivation factors with success within groups. Groups with low scores in instrument tended to score higher success averages, and the group with the highest instrument score had the lowest success average.

Once the profiles were removed from their groups and analysed as a larger sample, some of the findings seemed to confirm the findings from within groups. The influence of investment on success could not be confirmed, as the samples were not extensive enough to draw any conclusions. The connection between instrument and success, however, was confirmed. Low instrument showed to be consistent with high levels of success in an overall analysis of the data.

# CHAPTER FIVE
# CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

## 5.1 SUMMARY

With the data collected, processed and analysed, focus returned to the original goal of the study. The problem that inspired this study stems from a need for more insight into the pedagogical needs of language learners in the specific context of Dawson CTD ESL courses. The methodology used was conceived based on the broad theories of motivation developed by Ryan & Deci's (2000), Gardner (2007), Vallerand's (2000), Dornyei and Ushioda (2013), and modeled on a system designed by Wang and Liao (2011). The innovation detailed in this study applied these broad theories to a questionnaire that explored the motivational factors driving the students of ESL courses at Dawson College CTD. Through this data, it was possible to observe which of these motivational factors were connected to success.

The results found that while Dawson College CTD students were driven by a range of motivations, the most pervasive factors were intrinsic investment (a personal desire to integrate into the culture of the English language), followed by extrinsic investment (a pressure by others to integrate into the culture of the English language), and finally intrinsic instrument (a practical need to learn English for personal improvement). The results also found that students were negatively motivated with respect to extrinsic instrument (a practical need to learn English for others). Among these motivational factors, data showed that high levels of both intrinsic and extrinsic invested motivation were connected to success, and high levels of instrumental motivation tended to result in lower levels of success.

## 5.2 EFFECTIVENESS OF METHODS

For any method to be successful it must draw from the findings of previous researchers. The main instrument in this study consisted of a short survey targeting each of the elements covered in the broad motivational theories described earlier. One of the main concerns going into this process was avoiding the pitfalls experienced by

Ajayi (2008) and Salend and Salinas (2003). Their studies had the similar goal of forming student profiles and gaining insight into their student's cultural context. However, their shortcoming was that their method of gathering information was intrusive, their process too laborious, and the data was too extensive to be useful. To avoid those problems, this study drew from a more simplified process that targeted key concepts of motivation developed by Vallerand (2000) and Deci and Ryan (2008) and overlooked the particular circumstances of each student. The resulting methodology followed the work of Wang and Liao (2011) who had conducted a similar study into the learning styles of their students that had developed an easily adaptable means of forming student motivational profiles on a usable scale. These profiles, once formed could then be compared to tangible success data.

The simplicity of the data collection process in this study proved to produce, for the most part, the desired results. The vast majority of students who were offered the survey enthusiastically agreed to participate. The process itself took little of the teachers' time and effort, and the participants showed no sign of difficulty providing responses. The surveys were effective in collecting usable data, without getting inundated with unnecessary information.

Despite this preliminary success, there remained some questions about the effectiveness of the survey itself. The aims of this study called for reliable quantitative data as collected in the study by Wang and Liao (2011). The goal was to prove the relevance of motivational factors and their relationship to success in a simple, scientific process with tangible results. While participants responded well to the data collection process, when it came to analysis, there were portions of the data set that were insufficient. When comparing individual motivational factors within and throughout groups, many of the results were inconclusive simply due to lack of data. There were not enough participants exhibiting low intrinsic instrument and low intrinsic investment to analyse. It may simply be that none of the participants had these traits. Or it may be that the data collection process did not elicit it. This could be remedied by redesigning the surveys to place more emphasis on those particular motivational factors. A larger sample may also give more data to process.

As for the accuracy of the data, without qualitative data obtained through interviews, there was no mechanism in place to verify the information given by participants, nor was there any follow-up on their particular reasons for success. The goal of the study was to consolidate the participants' personal factors into broad theories. There was no discernable motive for participants to report false information, the questions were clear, and the responses targeted key factors. To this extent, the 7-digit profile code, cross sectioned by a clear measure of success, proved to be an effective unit of measure.

In the beginning of the analysis, even before success data had been collected, profile codes were easily organized into visual representations using Excel. One of the primary directives of this study was to develop a simple universal approach to data analysis. By creating graphic representations of the results, the motivational character of each group could clearly be seen. The simple colour blocks shown in graphs, representing key motivational tendencies, could be assessed at a glance. While this does not provide a complete picture of the vast extent of proclivities characteristic to any group, it does give sufficient insight for educators to begin designing the first stages of a suitable pedagogical approach. A group's data can be evaluated visually without applying extensive quantitative methods.

No matter how much insight educators may feel they can extract from a heuristic analysis of the data, none of it has any scientific relevance until it has been tested against tangible measures of success. One of the driving goals of this study was to measure the manifestations of these motivational concepts. Since the data pertained so uniquely to the particular pedagogical circumstances of Dawson CTD, the study was limited in its scope to qualified participants from among the population of the courses available within the time frame of this study. The population of 56 was in many ways not sufficient to make any conclusive evaluation of the results. There were few observable tendencies in the data that would suggest that any particular category or form of motivation is inherently connected to success. There were, however, some noticeable results that were consistent throughout all of the data sets that need to be highlighted.

As seen in Table 9, some significant findings were discovered during the process of examining the prevalent group trait and its relation to success. There is a noticeable tendency among successful groups to have strong levels of investment motivation. This is consistent with the research of Bodycott (2006) and Schwartzer (2009) who have shown how a student's attitudes about the target language deeply influence the learning process. If these findings are accurate, they may also be testament to the appropriateness of the teaching style and the materials being used. As shown by Slev (2015) and Gibbons (2008), groups have varying success based on the consistent goals and needs of the students in the group. Further investigation may also find that these results are due to the quality of the teacher's performance or the nature of the elements of competency within the course.

## 5.3 FURTHER RESEARCH ENDEAVOURS

Due to the limitations brought on by the scale of this study, further questions remain unanswered in relation to what is known and what is unknown in the results. A review of the findings in this study reveals some pending issues to be further investigated.

Arguably the most important finding from this study was the connection between instrumental motivation and success. It is consistent from three different interpretations of the data set. It appears that lower levels of instrumental motivation are connected to higher levels of success. This goes against the basic assumption that higher levels of motivation, regardless of the type or category, should invariably result in better success results. An examination into the nature of this unexpected result brings up the original survey questions that target instrument. As seen in Tables 2 and 4, intrinsic instrument represents the degree of a student's desire for self-improvement. Extrinsic instrument is representative of a student's target-language opportunities outside of the classroom. These results may be indicative of the overall lack of target language opportunities in the participant's lives. The study was conducted in a primarily French-speaking environment where many non-English speakers have no exposure to English speaking culture. Those students coming to

Dawson CTD likely used their class time as one of few opportunities to use the language. This language dynamic described by Jule (2002), Winer (2007) and Schwartzer (2009) is particular to the bilingual culture of Montreal. Further study into the unique nature of language learning in Montreal and Quebec may shed more light on the motivational anomalies found in this study.

High investment levels in successful groups suggest a genuine interest in the culture of the language. High levels of intrinsic instrument in the lowest scoring group suggests a focus on practical use of the language rather than a means to integration. This is supported by low levels of investment in low scoring groups, which suggest little interest in the culture of the language. Since extrinsic instrument is related to opportunities for language use outside of the classroom, and success is based on attendance, it stands to reason that students who are highly invested in acquiring a language, but have few opportunities to practice, will show stronger engagement and make more of an effort to participate in the course. According to success data, the courses at Dawson CTD appear to offer an effective outlet for that particular need. Conversely, the group that had low investment, but high levels of instrumental motivation, lost 2/5 of its population before the end of the course. Could the group have been more successful had the instructor known the motivational profile of the group? What could have been done to improve success based on this information? What more could be known about the group?

This raises some discussion about the overall effectiveness of the process that obtained these findings, and what can be done with the findings when the process is done. The effectiveness of these motivational profiles can be better ascertained by a long term study of the teaching styles applied to each group, much like the study conducted by Wang and Liao (2011). By collecting data on learning styles and course content, more questions can be explored. What is the relation between motivational types and pedagogical approaches? Which pedagogical approaches are best suited to each motivational profile? Much of this continued research may involve follow-up interviews with students and teachers. Some relevant qualitative data can be collected on the dynamics of groups with mixed motivational profiles in comparison to groups

with homogenous motivational profiles. With further investigation, the relevance of the data collected by the methods in this study will become more applicable to the specific needs of educators and administrators.

## 5.4 DISCUSSION

One of many conclusions that can be drawn from the results of this study, is that while no particular motivational type precludes success, groups of students who are invested in a certain degree of cultural acquisition (intrinsic investment) are more engaged in their learning. Likewise, students who are interested in a more instrumental approach (intrinsic instrument), and who see English as a foreign language, tend to lose their drive. This may be because Dawson CTD instructors apply a pedagogical approach that is conducive to invested motivation, or that they use materials that cultivate cultural integration.

Matsuda (2003) and Gilmore (2007) discuss the importance of cultural dynamics in the learning process, and how pedagogical approaches such as target-language only usage, and "real world" English content can be more appropriate for instrumental learners. Perhaps the lower-scoring, instrumentally motivated, non-culturally invested group would have taken to a pedagogy more suited to learners of English as a Foreign Language. If motivational profiles had been collected during the placement process, perhaps students with strong investment and students with strong instrument could have been sorted into their appropriate groups, and given appropriate materials.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from this study is that it simply did not generate enough information to make a reliable assessment. The population of 56 used in this study was selected from a convenient sample. This was the total number of qualified participants available at the time within the scope of the study. The lowest scoring group, from which many of the evaluations are based, had only 7 students, 5 of whom participated in the study. The low success score could easily be attributed to one of many unknown factors of agency. There is simply not enough information to conclude that the motivational profiles hold the key to the group's

success score. Nor can the outcome of the high scoring groups necessarily be attributed to their motivational scores. There is much more to be known - not just about the students and the group - but also about the teachers and the materials.

To know more about the nature of each motivational factor and its influence on notions of success, more data would need to be collected. Expanding the scale longitudinally would give educators a clearer picture of long-term student retention. Invested language learners with hopes of integrating are invariably involved in a long learning process with many stages of development. Instrumental language learners have clear goals and deadlines. These vastly different goals involve different pedagogy, different materials, different pace, and different group dynamics. More precise data about a student's intentions can help educators design the right program.

On the latitudinal scale, more participants at a time can give a clearer picture of how groups can be effectively formed. By analysing data in the context of group dynamics, educators can see how motivationally homogenous groups are more successful, and how pedagogical approaches fit with pedagogical needs. This would require more focused questions and tools that analyse interpersonal relations and their connection to success.

Keeping in mind that one of the guiding principles of this study was to design an effective and uncomplicated evaluation process, what more can this process do to make the results more credible? The current format of the surveys is quite basic. Each motivational type and category is tested by only one of two key questions. A more comprehensive set of questions could better ascertain accurate results. This could be done by broadening the scope of the theoretical basis for each category. The participant could be given more opportunities to report on the nature of their relationship with the target language. For example, there could be questions on their own expectations from the learning process, and on their target language usage outside of the classroom. This could be done in a way that continues to address key components, without delving into areas the participant may have difficulty answering.

This is the first, very basic, stage of a process that could be expanded and adapted. Regardless of how this system is applied to a group of students, there are

fundamental aspects that need to remain at its foundation. The process necessarily needs to be based on the four basic motivational factors: Intrinsic/Extrinsic and Investment/Instrumental. They cover simple notions. When motivation is positive, either they want to, or someone wants them to, and it is either to learn how to speak, or to become a speaker. When motivation is negative, one or more things are happening: It is because they have no desire to do it, others have no desire for them to do it, they are either not learning what they need, or it is not happening as they expected. The process must also take into account factors of agency, whether they are intrinsic or extrinsic: When it is positive, they either believe in themselves, or others believe in them. When it is negative, they cannot bring themselves to do it, or they cannot do it because of reasons beyond their control. The tool used to collect data must target these factors in a way that students can give accurate data early in the learning process. And finally, once the data is collected, educators must have a method of analysing this data in relation to their own context.

Ultimately, this process sees motivation as a type of crude engine. The motor is driven by pistons each representing a category of motivation. An engine will turn even if it is only firing one of the pistons. But the more pistons firing, the more power it produces. At the opening of the engine, there is a valve representing intrinsic agency. Nothing will move through the pistons unless this valve is open. At the end of the engine there is another valve representing extrinsic agency. No matter how much drive is created by the engine, if the end valve is closed nothing will move. Educators have a role in achieving a state of grace, where the pistons are turning in tune, the valves are open, and the motor is humming. Educators are not the locomotives pulling the train. Rather, they are the engineers who oil the parts, regulate the speed, monitor the pressure, and feed the engine of the train. Without ongoing maintenance, the engine can overheat, stall or fly off the rails. The educator keeps it on track. And just like any engine, the more they know about the engine, the more they take care of it, the better it will run.

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# APPENDIX A – LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

## List of Abbreviations

| Abbreviation | Meaning | Description |
|---|---|---|
| N | Group Population | The number of participants in a group |
| Pc | Profile Code | The 7-digit code attributed to each participant |
| Ps | Profile Score | The sum of the first 6 digits of each profile code |
| Mts | Motivational Type Score | The sum of the scores of each of the Motivational Types within a group |
| Psg | Profile Rank Group | Profile codes grouped by Profile Score ranking. |
| +Gt | Prevalent Positive Group Trait | Highest scoring positive motivational factor in a group. |
| -Gt | Prevalent Negative Group Trait | Highest scoring negative motivational factor in a group. |
| Is | Intrinsic Score | The sum of all intrinsic motivational factors in a group. |
| Es | Extrinsic Score | The sum of all extrinsic motivational factors in a group. |
| InvS | Investment Score | The sum of all investment factors in a group. |
| InsS | Instrumental Score | The sum of all instrumental factors in a group. |
| Ia | Intrinsic Average | Intrinsic score divided by N. (Ia=Is*N) |
| Ea | Extrinsic Average | Extrinsic score divided by N. (Ea=Es*N) |
| InvA | Investment Average | Investment score divided by N. (InvA=InvS*N) |
| InsA | Instrumental Average | Instrumental score divided by N. (InsA=InsS*N) |
| Gas | Group Agency Score | The sum of all agency scores in a group. |
| GAA | Group Agency Average | Group Agency Score divided by group size. (GAA=Gas*N) |
| Gms | Group Motivational Score | The sum of all profile sums in a group |
| GMA | Group Motivational Average | Group motivational score divided by group size. (GMA=Gms*N) |
| Sn | Success Nominator | Indicator of 1 for successful completion of the course and 0 for unsuccessful completion. |
| Ss | Success Score | The sum of all successful participants in a group. |
| GSA | Group Success Average | The overall success rate of a particular group. (GSA=SS*N) |
| GAA | Group Agency Average | Group Agency Score divided by group size. (GAA=Gas*N) |
| Gms | Group Motivational Score | The sum of all profile sums in a group |
| GMA | Group Motivational Average | Group motivational score divided by group size. (GMA=Gms*N) |
| Sn | Success Nominator | Indicator of 1 for successful completion of the course and 0 for unsuccessful completion. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Ss | Success Score | The sum of all successful participants in a group. |
| GSA | Group Success Average | The overall success rate of a particular group. (GSA=SS*N) |
| GAA | Group Agency Average | Group Agency Score divided by group size. (GAA=Gas*N) |
| Gms | Group Motivational Score | The sum of all profile sums in a group |
| GMA | Group Motivational Average | Group motivational score divided by group size. (GMA=Gms*N) |
| Sn | Success Nominator | Indicator of 1 for successful completion of the course and -1 for unsuccessful completion. |

# APPENDIX B – SURVEY QUESTIONS WITH DESCRIPTION

SURVEY QUESTIONS WITH DESCRIPTION

Survey Questions

1. What is the main reason for taking English lessons?

A. For work

B. For personal reasons

C. Both work and personal reasons

D. Other reasons (please specify)

- (Establishes whether primary motivation is Instrumental or investment)

2. What support do you get from your family or your employer?

A. I receive support from my employer, friends and family.

B. I receive support from my employer, but not my friends and family.

C. I receive support from my family and friends, but not my employer.

D. I don't get support from my family, friends or employer

- (Answers can confirm the degree of extrinsic investment or extrinsic instrument, and whether there are factors of extrinsic agency)

3. What opportunities do you have to use English outside of the classroom?

A. I have opportunities to speak English at work only.

B. I have opportunities to speak English outside of work only.

C. I have opportunities to speak English at work and outside work.

D. I don't have opportunities to speak English at work or outside of work.

- (Reveals environment necessary for intrinsic investment and intrinsic instrument, and possible extrinsic investment)

4. Where do you hope to use your English?

A. I would like to use English in my life outside of work.

B. I would like to use English in my workplace.

C. I would like to use English in both my workplace and outside of my workplace.

- *(*Clarifies instrumental/investment and intrinsic/extrinsic)

5. Which of your family or coworkers speak English?

A. My coworkers speak English, my friends and family don't.

B. My coworkers don't speak English, some of my friends and family do.

C. Some of my coworkers speak English. My friends and family also do.

D. Nobody I know speaks much English.

- (Confirms extrinsic agency and extrinsic investment.)

6. Are you good at learning languages?

A. I am good at learning languages

B. Sometimes it is easy, sometimes it is difficult

C. I am not good at learning languages

D. Don't know

- *(Establishes intrinsic agency)*

7. Do you sometimes find it difficult to come to class?

A. Yes, I do

B. No, I don't

C. Sometimes

- *(Explores extrinsic agency)*

8. What are your biggest difficulties in learning?

- *(Confirms intrinsic agency and possible negative elements in other categories.)*

# APPENDIX C – SAMPLE SURVEY WITH ANSWERS

Sample Survey with Answers

1. What is the main reason for taking English lessons?

   Answer: For work

Finding: motivation is primarily instrumental (int/ins +1)

2. What support do you get from your family or your employer?

Answer: I receive support from my employer, but not my friends and family.

   Answer: For work

Finding: motivation is primarily instrumental (ext/ins -1 ext/inv +1)

3. What opportunities do you have to use English outside of the classroom?

   Answer: I have opportunities to speak English at work only.

Finding: positive intrinsic instrument. There is pressure from a practical need to function in the workplace (+1) but few opportunities elsewhere. Result: (Int/ins +1)

4. Where do you hope to use your English?

   Answer: I would like to use English in my workplace.

Finding: confirms positive intrinsic instrument. Int/ins +1

5. Which of your family or coworkers speak English?

   Answer: My coworkers speak English, my friends and family don't.

Finding: positive extrinsic agency in workplace, but negative extrinsic investment from friends and family. Result: (Ext/Ag +1) (Ext/Inv -1)

6. Are you good at learning languages?

   Answer: Sometimes it is easy, sometimes it is difficult

Finding: neutral intrinsic agency. Result: (Int/Ag 0)

7. Do you sometimes find it difficult to come to class?

   Answer: Yes, I do, family obligations

Finding: External obstacle to learning from outside of workplace. Result: (Ext/Ag -1)

8. What are your biggest difficulties in learning?

Answer: difficult to find the time to focus on English

Finding: Confirms external obstacle to learning

# APPENDIX D – ETHICS CERTIFICATE

**Research Ethics Board**
Room 4B.01-12
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## Certificate of Ethical Acceptability of Research Involving Humans

| **Certificate Details** | |
|---|---|
| **Study ID:** VERBT161782 | **Application ID:** 160725 |
| **Study Title:** Factors in Motivation | |
| **Type of Application:** New Study | **Review Level:** Delegated Review |

| **Research Team** |
|---|
| **Principal Investigator:** Tristan Verboven (Graduate Student, University of Sherbrooke) |
| **Co-Investigator(s):** None. |
| **Collaborators:** None. |

**Provisions**

If completed, this section contains any additional administrative and/or ethical provisions that are applicable to the study.

None.

**Comments**

The following documents received ethics review:

- Attached documents sent to "Dawson REB Apply", dated 2016-07-25 16:01
- Attached documents sent to "Dawson REB Apply", dated 2016-11-07 11:59
- Attached documents sent to "Dawson REB Apply", dated 2016-11-29 13:33

The consent form (sent to the REB on 2016-11-29 13:33) is approved for use.

**IMPORTANT – Please Read Carefully**

The Research Ethics Board at Dawson College examined the aforementioned research project. This application was approved in accordance with the requirements of the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (2014) and the Dawson College Policy on the Ethical Conduct of Research Involving Humans (2011).

This certificate does not in itself constitute authorization for the research to proceed. As of the 2015-2016 academic year, Dawson College has two separate review processes (Institutional Review and Ethics Review). In addition to research ethics review conducted by the Dawson College Research Ethics Board, applications will be reviewed by the Academic Dean, through the Research Coordinator to ensure that the College is able to support the proposed research. It is the researcher's responsibility to ensure that they receive institutional authorization to conduct research involving human participants as well as maintaining ethics approval.

**Annual Renewal**: All research involving human participants requires review on an annual basis. An Application for Renewal of Ethics Approval form should be submitted at least one month before the above expiry date. An annual report must be included in your application. Applications for renewals will not be considered without an annual report.

**Study Closure**: When a study has been completed or terminated a Research Study Closure Form must be submitted within one month of the study's completion or termination date.

| |
|---|
| **Unanticipated Events**: Should any unanticipated developments or events occur during the course of the study, the REB Office must be notified within a reasonable timeframe.<br><br>**Modifications:** Any modifications prior the annual renewal must be approved by the REB prior to implementation. |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Approval Period** | November 30, 2016 | to | November 29, 2017 |

# APPENDIX E – SURVEY AND CONSENT FORM

**Survey and Consent Form**

This survey is part of a research project being conducted for a Master's Degree in Education at University of Sherbrooke. This study is part of a professional development program designed to help current teachers improve their professional skills.

The purpose of this study is to collect data on how students are motivated to learn English as a second language and on how it affects their success. This study will help to better understand the nature of motivation, and in turn help educators to develop more effective teaching methods. By volunteering for this study you will be asked to answer the questions below. Your responses will be combined with attendance records and other students' responses in order to find out more about how students learn. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and will in no way affect your standing in this course. Your name and information will be kept secure and will remain completely confidential.

If you are willing to participate in this survey, please sign the consent form below and complete the questionnaire. In signing you also give permission to access to data pertaining to your successful completion of the course. None of your data will be used without this explicit consent. You will be notified of the precise nature and extent of any significant alterations to the research process, and your consent can be withdrawn at any time without consequence to you. This consent form gives the researcher permission to use the responses in correlation with your attendance records and to use the statistical data for research. The results will be published in a research paper outlining correlations found between motivation types and student success. At no point will the participant's name or any other identifying details be published or released.

**Statement of Consent**

I have reviewed the contents of this consent form. I am aware of the study's purpose, what I am asked to do, and how my responses will be used as well as the terms of my participation. I have had the opportunity to ask questions, and my questions were answered.

I am aware that I can withdraw from this study at any time. I do not give up any rights by participating in this study. I agree to take part in this study. I will receive a copy of this signed consent form for my records.

Name: Signature: Date:

_____

(Please print) (Year/Month/Day)

Please answer the following questions by choosing the best response for each.

**What is your main reason for taking English lessons?**

- For work
- For personal reasons
- Both work and personal reasons
- Other reasons (please specify)

_____

_____

**What support or encouragement do you get from your family or your employer?**

- I receive support from my employer, friends and family.
- I receive support from my employer, but not my friends and family.
- I receive support from my family and friends, but not my employer.
- I don't get support from my family, friends or employer

Complete the sentence:
I get the most support from_____.

**What opportunities do you have to use English outside of the classroom?**

- I have opportunities to speak English at work only.
- I have opportunities to speak English outside of work only.
- I have opportunities to speak English at work and outside work.
- I don't have opportunities to speak English at work or outside of work.

Complete the sentence:
I have the most opportunities to speak English when

_____

_____

**Where will you most likely use your English?**

- I mostly use English in my life outside of work.
- I mostly use English in my workplace.
- I use English in both my workplace and outside of my workplace.

Where do you most often use English?

_____

_____

**Which of your family or coworkers speak English?**

- My coworkers speak English, but my friends and family don't.
- My coworkers don't speak English, but some of my friends and family do.
- Some of my coworkers speak English. My friends and family also do.
- Nobody I know speaks much English.

Who do you know who speaks English?

_____

_____

**Are you good at learning languages?**

- I am good at learning languages
- Sometimes it is easy, but sometimes it is difficult
- I am not good at learning languages
- Don't know

What languages (besides your native language) have you learned?

_____

_____

**Do you sometimes find it difficult to come to class?**

- Yes, I do
- No, I don't
- Sometimes

When you miss class, what is the main reason?

_____

_____

**What are your biggest difficulties in learning?**

_____

_____

_____